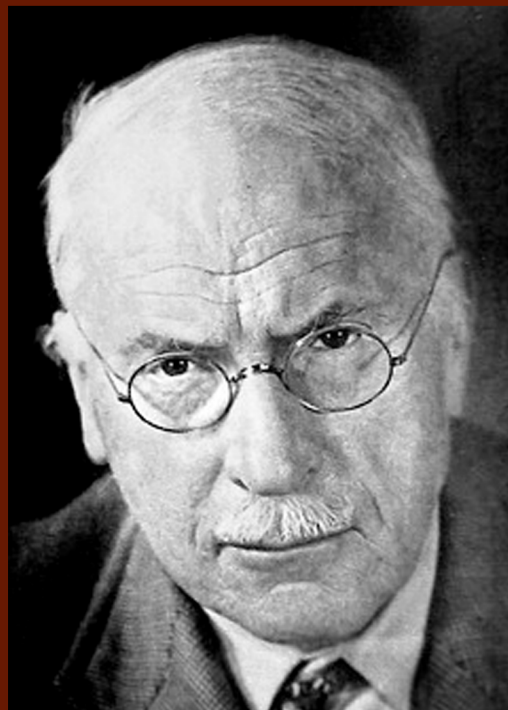




The International Journal of
INDIAN PSYCHOLOGY

Person of the Issue



Carl Gustav Jung (1875-1961)

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Message from Editors

Welcome to Volume 2, Issue 3. Throughout this period, IJIP focused on improving our policies, format and facilities provided, keeping in mind our authors; because we love our authors and our authors love us!

Our main purpose is to put forward a variety of psychological ideas and researches to the world. We also aim to develop meaningful relationships with good publications around the world. We do this with the aim of providing advantage to us and to them. Some of the major publishers and institutes we have tried to connect to be Google, Academia, OAJI and Research Bible. We have also been given a chance to work with Publishing Police at a very low cost and high quality benefits.

IJIP has been rewarded with a No. 1 position with a score of 19.67 on the Directory of Science which lists the top 100 science journals throughout the world. Our impact factor is 4.50, evaluated by Index Copernicus International, from Warsaw, Poland.

In the following issue experts in varying fields of psychology have shared their ideas related to psychological problems and their solutions. We are grateful to these authors for allowing us to publish their researches and ideas in this issue. We would also like to thank other writers, and our beloved readers for providing a strong support and being a part of team.

Prof. Suresh Makvana, PhD*

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Index of Volume 2, Issue 3, No.3

No.	Title	Author	Page No.
1	Person of the Issue: Carl Gustav Jung (1875-1961)	Ankit Patel	01
2	Impact of Self-Efficacy on Psychological Well-Being among Undergraduate Students	Shamsul Siddiqui	05
3	Perceived Stress and Coping Resources among Male and Female Employees in Diverse Workforces	Ms. Shivani Datta	17
4	Positive Thinking Can Change Our Life	Sonal D. Parmar	27
5	Contemporary Religious Fundamentalism	Dr. Uma S. Sharma	31
6	Empowerment of Women: A Conceptual Framework	Dr. Anu Dandona	35
7	A Study of Gender Inequality in India	Priti Jha Niti Nagar	48
8	Key approaches of Education for Rural Transformation	Kacker. P	54
9	Modernization and Social Change among Adolescence	Trupti Ambalal Chandalia	65
10	Social Adjustment of College Students in Relation to Gender	Shruti A. Suthar	67
11	GAME: General Aggression Model in Education	Dr. Tanu Tandon	72
12	Conflict Management Styles of Female Androgynous Supervisor and Subordinate	Nehal B. Solanki	81
13	Work Life Balance in Relation to Well-Being of Religious and Non-Religious Employees	SuboohYusuf Dr. Kr. Sajid khan	90
14	Psychological Well-Being in Government and Private NGO's Abled Person	Ajay Chauhan	95

15	Internet Addiction, Mental Health and Academic Performance of School Students/Adolescents	Nayanika Singh K. C. Barmola	98
16	Effectiveness of Cognitive Behaviour Therapy in the Management of Anxiety among School Students	Veena Chakravarthy Dr. V. Chandramohan	109
17	Classroom Physical Environment and Academic Achievement of Students	Swati H. Kekare	116
18	Psychosocial Development of Patients with Disorder of Sexual Development vis-à-vis Hypospadias	Dr. Ratika Samtani	121
19	Effect of Parenting Styles and Different Family Income on Altruism in Adolescents	Munira. B. Punjvani	126
20	Effect of Yoga and Gender on Self-esteem and Aggression	Dr. Rajesh Baburao Shirsath	141

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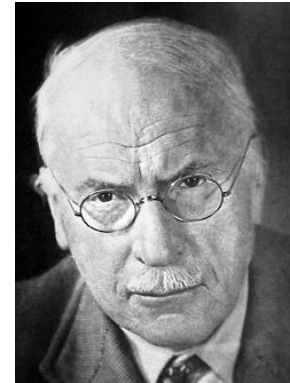


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Person of the Issue: Carl Gustav Jung (1875-1961)

Ankit Patel¹

Born	26 July 1875 Kesswil, Thurgau, Switzerland
Died	6 June 1961 (aged 85) Küsnacht, Zürich, Switzerland
Alma mater	University of Basel
Field	Psychiatry, psychology, psychotherapy, analytical psychology
Spouse	Emma Jung



Carl Gustav Jung (1875-1961) had a significant contribution to the psychoanalytical movement and is generally considered as the prototype of the dissident through the impact of his scission and the amplification of the movement he created in his turn (analytical psychology).

Jung was the son of a Swiss reverend. He completed his medical studies, specialized in psychiatry and joined the staff of Burgholzli, the renowned psychiatric hospital in Zurich, run at that time by the famous Dr. Eugen Bleuler.

In 1902-1903 he attended a traineeship in Paris with Pierre Janet, and then returned to Zurich and he was called senior physician at Burgholzli.

It was in this context that Jung was introduced to Freud in 1907. Freud would be seduced by the prestige and personality of Jung and would soon see in him the spiritual son that could ensure the survival of psychoanalysis, so much so as Jung was not Jewish.

Intense, professional and friendship bonds form between the two, with an ambivalence dominated by the inclination of Jung to underestimate himself in comparison with Freud, the fervor of his devotion to the "father" of psychoanalysis and oneiric hostility (emphasized by Freud in the common interpretation of dreams).

Jung had a swift ascension in the hierarchy of psychoanalysis. He became the editor of *Jahrbuch*.

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Person of the Issue: Carl Gustav Jung (1875-1961)

In 1908, he traveled to the United States and in 1910 he became the first president of the International Association of Psychoanalysis.

The reluctance of Jung towards the Freudian theory referred to the role of sexuality in the psychic development. In fact, Jung never completely embraced the sexual theory of Freud.

Since 1912 he became more and more distant in his writings, which would cause a scission materialized in 1914 by his resignation from all the positions he already held.

He married Emma Rauschenbach in 1903. They had five children. Even though he remained married to Emma till her death, he had several affairs with other women, the most notable of whom were Sabina Spielrein and Toni Wolff.

TIME LINE

Years	Happenings
1875	Jung is born in Kesswill, Switzerland, son of a Reformed Protestant pastor, Johann Paul Jung, and Emilie Preiswerk.
1895	Jung enters Basel University to study science and medicine.
1896	Jung's father dies.
1900	Jung graduates with a M.D. from the University of Basel and is appointed assistant at the Burgholzli Psychiatric Hospital, Zurich, under Professor Eugen Bleuler.
1900-1909	Jung works at the Burgholzli Mental Hospital in Zurich.
1902	Jung gets his Ph.D. at the University of Zurich with a doctoral dissertation <i>On the Psychology and Pathology of So-Called Occult Phenomena</i> .
1903	Jung marries Emma Rauschenberg. They get five children in the course of time.
1905-1913	Jung lectures in psychiatry at the University of Zurich.
1906	Jung initiates letter correspondence with Sigmund Freud and visits him next year in Vienna.
1907	Jung's first meeting with Freud. He writes the work <i>The Psychology of Dementia Praecox</i> .
1909	Jung resigns from Burgholzli. He visits USA with Freud.
1909	Jung also opens his private practice of psychoanalysis in Kuessnacht - he runs it enthusiastically till he dies.
1910	Jung is elected President of International Psychoanalytic Association. He writes <i>Symbols of Transformation</i> . Lectures at Fordham University.
1912	Jung declares he is scientifically independent of Freud and publishes <i>Neue Bahnen der Psychologie</i> .
1913	Jung resigns as President. His final break with Freud.
1916	Jung publishes <i>La structure de l'inconscient</i> .
1917	Jung publishes <i>Die Psychologie der unbewussten Prozesse</i> .
1919	Jung's first use of the term archetype (in <i>Instinct und Unbewusstes</i>).
1921	Jung publishes <i>Psychologische Typen (Psychological Types)</i> .
1923	Jung starts the building of his "tower" in Bollingen.
1923	Jung visits Pueblo Indians in North America.

Person of the Issue: Carl Gustav Jung (1875-1961)

1925	Jung's study trip to the Elgoni of Mount Elgon in East Africa.
1929	Jung's Commentary on the Taoist text <i>The Secret of the Golden Flower</i> .
1931	Jung publishes <i>Seelenprobleme der Gegenwart</i> .
1932-1940	Jung works as a professor of psychology at the Federal Polytechnical University in Zurich.
1934	Jung publishes <i>Wirklichkeit der Seele</i> . He also begins series of seminars on Nietzsche's <i>Zarathustra</i> . President (until 1939) of International Society for Medical Psychotherapy.
1935	Jung's Tavistock Lectures, London, on "Analytical Psychology".
1937	Jung's Terry Lectures, Yale University, on "Psychology and Religion".
1937	Jung's study trip to India.
1941	Jung publishes <i>Essays on a Science of Mythology</i> with Karl Kerényi.
1944-1945	Jung becomes professor of medical psychology at the University of Basel, and his <i>Psychology and Alchemy</i> is published.
1945	Jung publishes <i>Nach der Katastrophe</i> .
1948	Founding of C.G. Jung Institute, Zurich.
1950	Jung publishes <i>Aion - F��nomenologie des Selbsts</i> .
1951	Jung's lecture "On Synchronicity".
1952	Jung publishes <i>Antwort f��r Job (Answers to Job)</i> .
1955?	His <i>Mysterium Coniunctionis</i> .
1957	Jung publishes <i>Gegenwart und Zukunft</i> .
1961	Jung dies at his home in Kusnacht, near Zurich, at the age of 85, after a short illness.

"Thank God I am Jung and not Jungian" (C.G. Jung)

CARL JUNG WORKS*

1. Memories, Dreams, Reflections
2. The Red Book: A Reader's Edition (Philemon)
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4. Modern Man in Search of a Soul
5. The Archetypes and The Collective Unconscious (Collected Works of C.G. Jung Vol.9 Part 1)
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***All the works are available at**

<http://astore.amazon.com/freudandpsychoan?node=3&page=1>

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Impact of Self-Efficacy on Psychological Well-Being among Undergraduate Students

Shamsul Siddiqui¹

ABSTRACT:

The present investigation was carried out to study the impact of Self-efficacy on Psychological Well-being among undergraduate students. The sample consisted of 100 (50 Male and 50 Female) students selected from the Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh. In order to collect the requisite data, General Self-Efficacy Scale (S. Sud, Schwarzer and Jerusalem, 1995) and Psychological Well-being (Carol Ryff, 1989) was used to study the mentioned problem. Simple Linear Regression was used to analyze the impact of self-efficacy on psychological well-being among undergraduate students. The findings of the present study show that the correlation between Self-efficacy and Psychological Well-being among Male students was found $R = .596$ and the actual contribution of predictor variable to criterion variable was found to be 35.6% whereas among Female students the correlation between Self-efficacy and Psychological Well-being was found $R = .551$ and the actual contribution of predictor variable to criterion variable was found to be 30.4%. Further t-test was applied between Self-efficacy as well as Psychological Well-being of both groups, where it was found that there was insignificant difference between Self-efficacy of Male and Female students but a significant difference was found between Psychological well-being of both groups.

Keywords: *Self-efficacy, Psychological well-being*

The concept of Albert Bandura's self-efficacy which relates to judgment people make concerning their ability to execute behavior relevant to a specific task or situations. It refers to the confidence in one's ability to behave in such a way or to produce a desirable outcome (Bandura, 1977). Self-efficacy makes a difference in how people feel, think and act. Self-efficacy pertains to optimistic belief about being able to cope with a variety of stressors. Self-efficacy is defined as self-evaluation of one's competence to successfully execute a course of action necessary to reach desired outcome. It is a multidimensional construct that varies according to the domain of demands (Zimmerman, 2000), and therefore it must be evaluated at a level that is specific to the outcome domain (Bandura, 1986). Self-efficacy pertains to optimistic belief about being able to cope with a variety of stressors. People with high self-efficacy choose to perform more challenging and difficult tasks. In terms of feeling low level of self-efficacy is concerned with depression, anxiety and helplessness.

¹Research Scholar, Department of Psychology, Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh

Impact of Self-Efficacy on Psychological Well-Being among Undergraduate Students

People with high level of self-efficacy approach life with a can – do attitude that allows them to see challenges as problems to be solved instead of threats that must be avoided. They also set appropriately challenging goal for themselves and maintain a strong commitment to those goals. People with strong self-efficacy enjoy life because they are highly engaged. When they encounter stressful situations their belief in their ability to manage situations to their benefit allows being self confident.

High self- efficacy is related to positive well-being, regulation of stress, higher self-esteem, better physical condition, better adaptation to and recovery from diseases (Bandura, 1997; Bisschop, Knegsman, Beekman, & Deeg, 2004; Kuijer & de Ridder, 2003). On the other hand, low self-efficacy is related to more symptoms of anxiety and depression (Faure & Loxton, 2003; Kashdan & Roberts, 2004; Shnek, Irvine, Stewart, & Abbey, 2001), as well as to lower levels of subjective well-being (Barlow, Wright, & Cullen, 2002; Bandura, Caprara, Barbaranelli, Gerbino, & Pastorelli, 2003; Caprara, 2002).

Self-efficacy has been found to be linked with academic achievement and performance (Salami & Ogundokun, 2009) and is highly contextualized (Bandura, 1997): for this reason, it appeared necessary to study different aspects of its effects in each period of human development and psychological well-being from infancy to adulthood. In terms of self-efficacy gender is an important aspect for investigation; generally males are considered to be superior and females as inferior commonly in our culture. Social cognitive theory has been especially important in understanding social influence on gender (Bugental & Grusec, 2006). The females have to bear the discrimination of the majority in every sphere starting from their own family to the society who provide impoverished environment, as a result affect their well-being and overall personality (Bussey & Bandura, 1999). The discrimination and differentiation on the basis of gender is leading to inferiority complexes among the females in both joint as well as nuclear families. In a study conducted by Dona, Scholz, Schwarzer and Sud (2002) have reported the superiority of males with regard to self-efficacy as compared to females in various cultures.

PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING

Psychological wellbeing is a subjective feeling of containment happiness satisfaction with life experiences ones role in the world of work, sense of achievement, utility ,belongingness, and no distress , sections or worry etc. (Shek, 1997; Sastre & Ferriere, 2000; VanWel, Linssen & Abma, 2000) showed that various factors affect adolescent's level of psychological well-being. psychological well being is a somewhat malleable concept which is the feeling of people everyday life activities such feelings may range negative mental state or psychological strains such as anxiety, expression, frustration ,emotional exhaustion ,unhappiness, dissatisfaction to a state which has been identified as positive mental health (Jahoda ,1958). Bornstein, Davidson, Keyes, and Moore (2003) defined well-being as “the state of successful performance throughout the life course integrating psychical, cognitive, and socio-emotional functions that results in

productive activities deemed significant by one's cultural community, fulfilling social relationships, and the ability to transcend moderate psychosocial and environmental problems". This construct was articulated in subjective (SWB) and psychological well-being (PWB).

The first type of well-being is in agreement with the hedonic perspective (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988; Diener et al., 1999) and includes the dimensions linked to physical health, positive and negative affect, and life satisfaction, while the second one is consistent with the eudaimonic perspective (Ryff, 1989; Ryff & Singer, 1996; Kashdan, Biswas-Diener, & King, 2008) and includes the dimensions of self-actualization, personal development, and relations with environment. The psychological well-being has been considered by Ryff (1989) as a set of psychological characteristics implicated in positive human functioning (Keyes, Ryff, & Schmotkin, 2002): autonomy, environmental mastery, self acceptance, purpose in life, positive relations with others, and personal growth. The six dimensions of PWB evoke different challenges that people encounter as they try to function positively (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). Individuals attempt to feel good even when aware of their own limitations (self-acceptance), seek to develop and maintain warm and trust in interpersonal relationships (positive relations with others), try to manage their environment so as to meet personal needs and desires (environmental mastery); in addition, individuals look for a sense self-determination and personal authority (autonomy), finding meaning in one's efforts and challenges (purpose in life); lastly, individuals tend to seek their talents and capacities (personal growth). Several studies have documented the effects of socio demographic variables such as age and sex in the dimensions of PWB (Clarke et al., 2000; Keyes & Ryff, 1998; Marmot et al., 1998; Ryff & Singer, 1996). By Ryff (1989), environmental mastery and autonomy tended to increase with age (especially from young to midlife adults), while purpose in life and personal growth decreased with age (especially from midlife to old aged adults), without age differences for self-acceptance and positive relations with others; furthermore, Ryff and Singer (1996) pointed out that women of all ages valued themselves higher on positive relations with others and personal growth. Recently, in Italian context, Sagone and De Caroli (in press) found that late adolescents showed greater personal growth and purpose in life than middle ones and boys valued themselves higher on environmental mastery and self-acceptance than girls.

Psychological well-being and self-efficacy have been shown to predict students' scholastic performance and success. As reported by some researches, students who expressed high levels of self-efficacy and well-being were motivated to participate in relevant academic activities and to develop positive attitudes that led to success at school (Ozer & Bandura, 1990; Lyubomirsky, 2001; Khramtsova et al., 2007) and were likely to perform well in their academic goals (Zimmerman, Bandura, & Martinez-Pons, 1992). Furthermore, students who perceived themselves as highly efficient in school context were likely to develop positive attitudes toward the learning of subjects. Students with high psychological well-being and life satisfaction were found to be more flexible, resilient, and efficient in problem solving and were more committed to

their academic goals and pursued success rather than to be focused on avoiding of their failures (Pajares & Schunk, 2001).

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1. To study the impact of self-efficacy on psychological well being on undergraduate male and female students.
2. To study the relationship between self-efficacy and psychological well being of undergraduate male and female students.
3. To study the difference between self-efficacy as well as psychological well being of undergraduate male and female students.

HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

1. There will be significant impact of self-efficacy on psychological well being on undergraduate male and female students.
2. There will be positive relationship between self-efficacy and different dimensions of psychological well being of undergraduate male and female students.
3. There will be significant difference between self-efficacy as well as psychological well being of undergraduate male and female students.

METHODOLOGY

Sample

The sample of the present study consisted of 100 (50 male & 50 females) students. Purposive sampling technique used from the Aligarh Muslim University Aligarh.

Tools

General Self-Efficacy Scale

(GSES; S. Sud, R. Schwarzer & M. Jerusalem, 1995): the general self- efficacy scale is a 10 items psychometrics scale that is design to assess optimistic self-belief to cope with a variety of difficult demand in life. the scale has been originally developed in Germany by Matthias Jerusalem and Ralf Schwarzer in 1981, first as a 20-item version and later as a reduced 10-item version by Sud, R. Schwarzer along and M. Jerusalem (1995), and the test is self- evaluation questionnaire consisting of 10 statement related to situation. Cronbach`s alpha ranged from 0.76 to 0.90, with the majority in the high 0.80. It is a 4 point likert scale ranging from not at all true to exactly true. Total score ranged from 10 to 40 points.

Psychological well being scales (PWB):

In the present investigation, psychological well being was measured by Ryff`s scales of psychological well being scale developed by Carol Ryff (1989). The scale consists of 54 items. Which consists a series of statement reflecting the six areas of psychological well being: self-acceptance, positive relation with others, autonomy, environmental mastery, purpose in life and personal growth? Respondents rate statement on a scale of 1 to 6, with 1 indicating strong

Impact of Self-Efficacy on Psychological Well-Being among Undergraduate Students

disagreement and 6 indicating strong agreement. The internal consistency coefficients of the scale between 0.86 and 0.93.

PROCEDURE

The scales were administered on the Under Graduate students, before distributing the respective tools good rapport was established and proper instructions were given to the participants and also ensured for confidentiality; after that questionnaires were given, participants were taken half an hour to give their complete responses on the measures and then the data were collected.

Statistical Analysis

To verify the research objectives data was analyzed, Simple Linear Regression and t-test analyses were applied.

RESULTS

Table-1: Represents Simple Linear Regression analysis, Self-Efficacy as predictor of Psychological Well-being among Undergraduate Male Students.

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Change Statistics R Square Change
1	.596 ^a	.356	.349	.356

a. Predictors: (Constant), Self-Efficacy Male

The above table represents the Model Summary indicating one Predictor (Self-efficacy) of the model, where correlation between Self-efficacy and Psychological Well-being among male students was found to be $R=.596$, further R Square Change $=.356$ which represents the actual contribution of Self-efficacy to Psychological Well-being, the real covariance magnitude of Predictor variable: Self-efficacy which contribute to the Criterion Variable: Psychological Well-being came out as 35.6%.

Table-2: Showing the Coefficient details of Self-Efficacy and Psychological Well-being among Undergraduate Male Students.

Coefficients ^a					
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	151.004	10.127		14.911	.000
Self-Efficacy Male	2.325	.316	.596	7.357	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Overall Psychological Well-being Male

Table-2 (Coefficient) indicates that Self-efficacy (Predictor) influences Psychological Well-being (Criterion). The Statistical value given in the mentioned table indicates that $t = 7.357$ values are significant for Self-efficacy and also show the positive relationship between Self-efficacy and Psychological Well-being.

The Value of Beta is $r = .596$ which indicates that Self-efficacy significantly influences degree of Psychological Well-being among Undergraduate Male Students. The relationships between these two variables represent linear correlation among male students; it means that when Self-efficacy Increases Psychological Well-being also increases and when Self-efficacy decreases then Psychological Well-being also decreases.

Table-3: Represents the Correlations between Self-Efficacy and Different dimensions of Psychological Well-being among Male.

Correlations						
	Self Acceptance Male	Positive Relation Male	Autonomy Male	Environmental Mastery Male	Purpose in Life Male	Personal Growth Male
Self-Efficacy Male						
Pearson Correlation	.395**	.422**	.621**	.612**	.526**	.408**
N	100	100	100	100	100	100

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Impact of Self-Efficacy on Psychological Well-Being among Undergraduate Students

The above table indicates that Self-efficacy of male undergraduate students significantly correlated with different dimensions of Psychological well-being i.e. Self Acceptance, Positive Relation, Autonomy, Environmental Mastery, Purpose in Life, Personal Growth respectively.

Table-4: Represents Simple Linear Regression analysis, Self-Efficacy as predictor of Psychological Well-being among Undergraduate Female Students.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Change Statistics R Square Change
1	.551 ^a	.304	.297	.304

a. Predictors: (Constant), Self-Efficacy Female

The above table represents the Model Summary indicating one Predictor (Self-efficacy) of the model, where correlation between Self-efficacy and Psychological Well-being among female students was found to be $R=.551$, further $R\text{ Square Change}=.304$ which represents the actual contribution of Self-efficacy to Psychological Well-being, the real covariance magnitude of Predictor variable: Self-efficacy which contribute to the Criterion Variable: Psychological Well-being came out as 30.4%.

Table-5: Showing the Coefficient details of Self-Efficacy and Psychological Well-being among Undergraduate Female Students.

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	124.268	14.196		8.754	.000
Self-Efficacy Female	2.978	.455	.551	6.543	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Overall Psychological Well-being Female

Table-5 indicates that Self-efficacy (Predictor) influences Psychological Well-being (Criterion). The Statistical value given in the mentioned table indicates that $t = 6.543$ values are significant for Self-efficacy and also show the positive relationship between Self-efficacy and Psychological Well-being.

The Value of Beta is $r = .551$ which indicates that Self-efficacy significantly influences degree of Psychological Well-being among Undergraduate Male Students. The relationships between these

Impact of Self-Efficacy on Psychological Well-Being among Undergraduate Students

two variables represent linear correlation among female students; it means that when Self-efficacy increases Psychological Well-being also increases and when Self-efficacy decreases then Psychological Well-being also decreases.

Table-6: Represents the Correlations between Self-Efficacy and Different dimensions of Psychological Well-being among Female.
Correlations

	Self Acceptance Female	Positive Relation Female	Autonomy Female	Environmental Mastery Female	Purpose in Life Female	Personal Growth Female
Self-Efficacy Female	.092	.207*	.447**	.661**	.240*	.081
Pearson Correlation						
N	100	100	100	100	100	100

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The above table indicates that Self-efficacy of female undergraduate students significantly correlated with the dimensions of Psychological well-being i.e. Positive Relation, Autonomy, Environmental Mastery, and Purpose in Life while Self Acceptance and Personal Growth were insignificantly correlated.

Table-7: Represents the mean difference of Self-efficacy between male and female undergraduate students.

SELF-EFFICACY						
Group	N	Mean	SD	S _{ED}	t-value	Sig.
Self-Efficacy Male	100	31.20	7.335	.809	.24	
Self-Efficacy Female	100	31.00	3.423			

Above table shows mean, SD and t-value of male and female undergraduate students respectively which indicates that there is insignificant difference of self efficacy among male and female undergraduate students.

Table-8: Represents the mean difference of Psychological Wellbeing between male and female undergraduate students.

PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING						
Group	N	Mean	SD	S _{ED}	t-value	Sig.
Psychological Well-being Male	100	223.55	28.592	3.404	2.217*	0.05
Psychological Well-being Female	100	216.60	18.489			

Whereas, above table shows mean, SD and t-value of male and female undergraduate students which revealed that psychological well-being of Male and female undergraduate students has a significant difference at 0.05 level of significance.

DISCUSSION

It was found that there was a significant influence of Self-efficacy on Psychological Well-being among Male and female undergraduate Graduate students, which can be seen by the contribution of Predictor variable to Criterion variable as mentioned in the Table-1 (35.6%) and Table-4 (30.4%) respectively. This finding is supported by a number of studies; Bandura (1977) attributes the development of self-efficacy to four forces: mastery, social learning, social persuasion, and emotional and physical states. Of the four, the most powerful for producing self-efficacy is mastery and the most powerful is undermining self-efficacy is social persuasion. A number of structural conditions impact self-efficacy: social class, race, level of educations rural and urban backgrounds and gender all affect an individual global self- efficacy (Birch, 1987). Family structure to have a direct relationship to adolescent's self-efficacy (Bandura, 1995); Schneewind, 1995).

The second finding of the study also shows a significant relationship between self-efficacy and most of the dimensions of psychological well-being among Male and Female undergraduate Students. The psychological well-being has been considered by Ryff (1989) as a set of psychological characteristics implicated in positive human functioning (Keyes, Ryff, & Schmotkin, 2002): autonomy, environmental mastery, self acceptance, purpose in life, positive relations with others, and personal growth. Ryff & Keyes, (1995) reported that the six dimensions of PWB evoke different challenges that people encounter as they try to function positively. Individuals attempt to feel good even when aware of their own limitations for self-acceptance, seek to develop and maintain warm and trust in interpersonal relationships which shows the positive relations with others, and try to manage their environment so as to meet personal needs and desires which indicates environmental mastery; in addition, for the autonomy individuals look for a sense self-determination and personal authority, finding meaning in one's efforts and challenges shows purpose in life; lastly, for personal growth individuals tend to seek

their talents and capacities. Several studies have documented the effects of socio demographic variables such as age and sex in the dimensions of Psychological Well Being (Clarke et al., 2000; Keyes & Ryff, 1998; Marmot et al., 1998; Ryff & Singer, 1996). The Third finding of the study showed an insignificant difference between Self-efficacy of undergraduate male and female students but Psychological Well-being significantly different among Male and Female undergraduate students.

CONCLUSION

On the basis of these finding it can be concluded that self-efficacy has its positive and significant impact on psychological Well-being among undergraduate students and it was also found that self-efficacy enhance the psychological well-being. Consequently, high level of self-efficacy Contributes to high levels of engagements and life satisfaction, if self-efficacy is low psychological well being also low, if self efficacy is high psychological well being also high.

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Perceived Stress and Coping Resources among Male and Female Employees in Diverse Workforces

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ABSTRACT:

The present research work intended to study perceived stress and coping resources in diverse workforces. Diversity in workforce has been operationalized not only at micro level in terms of relative male-female numerical strength of the workforce in the organization but also at a macro level in terms of the relative male-female composition of different occupations that has led to gender typing of these occupations. Most previous gender based studies have sought to understand perceived workplace stress narrowly in terms of impact of gender alone. The present study extends the framework of prior research work by examining stress and coping resources as a function of Gender, Occupational Gender Typing (Gender Atypical/Gender Neutral or Non Atypical) and Proportional (Male-Female) Numerical Strength at workplace (Tokens/Non Tokens), with an examination of different groups of Males and Females in Gender Atypical and Gender Neutral/Non Atypical occupations as numerical Tokens and Non Tokens respectively. Total sample size was 250. Results depict that the complex interaction of Gender, Gender typing of Occupation and Male Female proportional numerical strength impact perceived stress and coping resources.

Keywords: *Gender, Diversity, Stress, Coping resources*

Diversity has been a much debated topic in management theory and practice in recent years, it were initially legal aspects, notably the avoidance of law suits, as well as changes in the labor market demographics(e.g. increased participation of women and minorities) that made it a subject of paramount importance for corporations.

The current form of the discursive theme of diversity increasingly emphasizes voluntary efforts (on the part of the organization) for enhancing inclusion as the ideal response to employee difference. Because it celebrates the economic potential of the difference, this theme seems to argue that smart and visionary companies will almost automatically make serious efforts to include a wide range of difference in their workforces and that those companies that fail to do so will be disciplined by the market because the performance of their employees will inevitably suffer.

However diversity promotion is not a simple task. Bond and Pyle (1998) cited various problems responsible for the lack of progress in the development of organizational diversity.

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They state that false assumptions about equality and difference lead to the development of diversity initiatives that generate unintended consequences, such as reverse discrimination that further exacerbates the workplace complications (Avery and McKay, 2006). In our present environment women are to deal with stereotyped beliefs and unfavorable attitudes regarding her job, discrimination in opportunity and social pressure to fit her on feminine standard. These situations put her in a more vulnerable condition to experience stress in both working and non working status. Several studies report that men and women differ in the degree of stress. In a job that is considered female appropriate, it could be that the male feel stressed due to lack of approval as revealed in the study by Mitra and Sen (1993) that found that the male teachers faced more stress due to masculine sex role orientation . In another study it was found that, among bank employees, male reported more role stress (Barkat and Asma,1999;Mohammed et al. 2002)

In another study Triveni and Aminabhavi (2002) explored the gender differences among different professionals and the results revealed that women professionals experienced significantly higher occupational stress than men due to under participation. Studies confirm that women are more prone to stress than men (Beena and Poduval, 1992; Pradhan and Khattri, 2001). Tripathi and Bhattacharji (2012), studied the psychological stress among employed women and suggest that housework is exclusively considered as women's work that consequently increased work load on employed women.

Various job categories have been compared to capture the occupational stress among working women and similar level of stress is found in different professional groups but opposite results were found in a study conducted by Pandey and Srivastava(2000),who compared female personnel working in railway, bank and teaching institutions. Railway and bank employee experienced higher work stress than teachers. Degree of life stress and role stress experienced by different professional women also differ according to their field as Devi (2007) compared 180 women professional belonging to six occupational groups. The result showed science and technology professionals and doctors experienced greater life and role stress followed by administrators and self employed. Teachers and bankers experienced comparatively lesser stress in both role as well as life. The findings hint at the impact that gender typing of occupations has on the stress experienced by working women. The experiences of women in professions like science and technology, medicine etc that are considered to be more male typical are different from the experiences of women in more feminine occupations. Perhaps one of the causes behind the stress experienced by women in gender atypical occupations stem from their violation of gender prescriptions.

In another study that studied the psychological correlates of role stress in working women respondents belonging to different professional group such as researchers, doctors, nurses, social workers, school teachers, university and college teachers, gazetted officers, bank employee and women entrepreneurs were studied. The findings revealed that university and college teachers experienced least role stress. These jobs are considered socially appropriate for women, are prestigious, working hours are limited, vacations are frequent and pay scales are reasonable .Due to these reasons, women in these professions may be able to fulfill the demands of various roles that the society has prescribed for them and they may not experience conflict because of the multiple roles they are expected to play. School teachers were found to be lower on all kinds of role stress in comparison to other professional group where there is a transgression of societal prescriptions at some level. (Pareek and Mehta, 1997).

Workplace experiences in a so called diversity sensitive work setting is an issue that cannot be

addressed in a socio cultural vacuum without considering the way females situate themselves vis a vis males at workplace and vice versa. Gender relations provide the psychosocial arenas in which these processes unfold. Gender relations have a profound effect on both men's and women's capacity to access and control resources and any information that sheds light on the causes, characteristics and consequences of unequal gender relations. The research in the present text attempts to amalgamate micro level structural concerns with macro context of gendered power play, cultural stereotypes with their inherent descriptive and prescriptive yardsticks in gaining a complete understanding workplace experience of male and female employees.

THE PRESENT STUDY

The purpose of the present study is to provide an insight into the impact of Gender, Proportional Numerical Strength at workplace and Occupational Gender Typing (in terms of Gender Typicality/ Atypicality) on the perception of stress and available coping resources.

OBJECTIVES

The objective of the study is to compare different groups created on the basis of Gender, Occupational Gender Type and Proportional Numerical Strength at workplace on the perception of stress and available coping resources.

HYPOTHESIS

On the basis of the review of literature and in the light of theoretical background, for attaining the objectives of research following hypothesis were formulated:

1. *Hypothesis 1:* There would be a significant difference between the eight groups based on Gender, Occupational Gender Type (Gender Atypical/ Gender Non Atypical) and Proportional Numerical Strength (Numerical Token/Non Token status) in the perceived level of stress.
2. *Hypothesis 2:* There would be a significant difference between the eight groups based on Gender, Occupational Gender Type (Gender Atypical/ Gender Non Atypical) and Proportional Numerical Strength (Numerical Token/Non Token status) in relation to the coping resources.

METHOD

SAMPLE

The sample comprised of both Male and Female employees working as numerical Tokens and Non Tokens in Gender atypical and Non atypical occupations. The total sample comprised of 250 participants.

The total sample can be divided into eight groups, namely Occupationally Gender Atypical Token Male (OATM), Occupationally Gender Atypical Token Female (OATF), Occupationally Gender Atypical Non Male(OANTM), Occupationally Gender Atypical Non Token Female(OANTF), Occupationally Gender Non Atypical Token Male (ONATM), Occupationally Gender Non Atypical Token Female (ONATF), Occupationally Gender Non Atypical Non Token Male (ONANTM), Occupationally Gender Non Atypical Non Token Female (ONANTF). The Sample design is illustrated in Figure 1.

Perceived Stress and Coping Resources among Male and Female Employees in Diverse Workforces

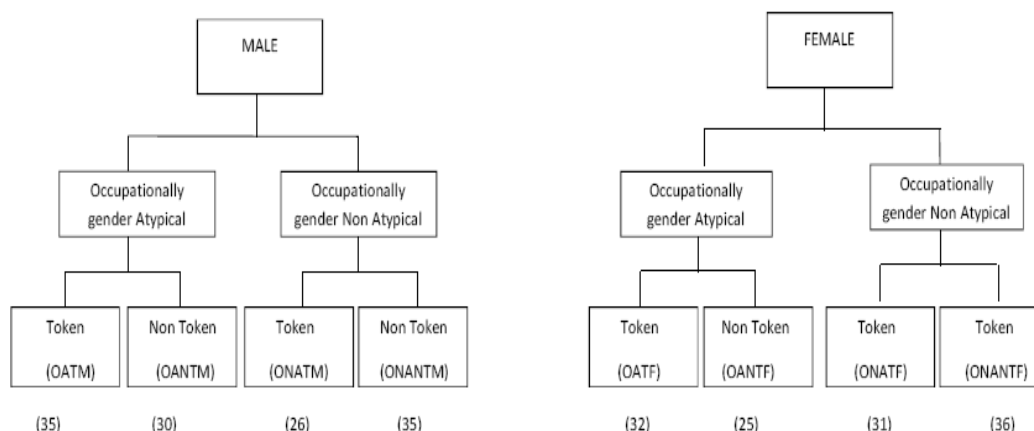


Figure 1: Sample Design

The sample was selected for the eight categories on the basis of the statistics on Education and Vocational Training in India (2009-10) depicting specific vocations with their male-female proportional numerical strength of potential workforce. (Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, 2013)

- **Males:** Gender atypical: less than 40% ; Gender Non atypical: 40-60%
Numerical Tokens: less than 20%; Numerical Non Tokens: more than 40%
- **Females:** Gender atypical: less than 30% ; Gender Non atypical: 30-50%
Numerical Tokens: less than 15%; Numerical Non Tokens: more than 30%

Criterion for Inclusion

- Criteria 1:** Number of years in the current job: 2-5
- Criteria 2:** Total work experience: ≤ 5 years
- Criteria 3:** Education: Above Senior Secondary
- Criteria 4:** Work Sector: Organized
- Criteria 5:** Organization Size: Small (< 50 employees)

For all analyses, education and Total work experience as well as professional tenure in the current organization were controlled because workers with more experience and education may be rewarded with more challenging work, greater autonomy, and higher levels of compensation making them more satisfied with their overall work experience work and more strongly attached to the organization than are the inexperienced and less well educated.

Research Tools

Perceived stress scale by Cohen (1983)

The Perceived Stress Scale (PSS) is the most widely used psychological instrument for measuring the perception of stress. It is a measure of the degree to which situations in one's life are appraised as stressful. Items were designed to tap how unpredictable, uncontrollable, and overloaded respondents find their lives. The scale also includes a number of direct queries about current levels of experienced stress. PSS scores are obtained by reversing responses (e.g., 0 = 4, 1 = 3, 2 = 2, 3 = 1 & 4 = 0) to the four positively stated items (items 4, 5, 7, & 8) and then

summing across all scale items.

Coping Resource Inventory by Marting& Hammer (1987)

Coping resource Inventory (CRI) was developed to provide a standardized measure of coping resources that may prove important in mediating a stress response. One of the goals for developing CRI was to identify the coping resources currently available to individuals for managing stress. The inventory comprises of the following dimensions:

1. Cognitive (COG): It assesses the extent to which individuals maintain a positive sense of self worth, a positive outlook towards others and optimism about life in general. A representative item in the inventory is “ I feel as worthwhile as anyone else”
2. Social (SOC): It assesses the degrees to which individuals are imbedded in social networks that are able to provide support in terms of stress. A representative item is ” I am a part f a group, other than my family, that cares about me”
3. Emotional (EMO):The degree to which individuals are able to accept and express a range of affect based on the premise that a range of emotional response aids in ameliorating long term consequences of stress. A representative item is “ I can cry when sad “
4. Spiritual/Philosophical (S/P): The degree by which actions of individual are guided by stable and consistent values derived from religious, family or cultural traditions or from personal philosophy. A representative item in the inventory is “ I know what is important in life”.
5. Physical: It assesses the degrees to which individual’s physical state of fitness and health are able to provide support in terms of stress.

Quantitative Analysis

Statistics used for analysing the quantitative data included simple descriptive statistics of mean and standard deviation.

Later for computing the differential perception of diversity climate of organisation for the 8 groups under study 2*2*2 analysis of variance was employed. The 3 factors being Gender (Male/Female), Occupational Gender Type (Occupational Gender Atypicality/Non Atypicality) and Proportional (Male-Female) Numerical Strength (Token/Non Token status)

All analysis was conducted using SPSS, version 19.

RESULTS

TABLE 1

Means and Standard Deviations for the Total Perception of stress for all the eight categories based on Gender ,Occupational Gender Type and Proportional Numerical Strength at workplace.

CATEGORIES	Total perception of stress	
	MEAN	S.D.
OATM	29.94	3.2
OANTM	27.97	2.7
ONATM	26.46	2.7
ONANTM	25.23	4.05
OATF	36.78	3.87
OANTF	34.6	3.87
ONATF	34.47	3.95
ONANTF	28.76	2.33

TABLE 1 shows that perceived stress reported by Occupationally atypical token females(OATF) is highest followed by Occupationally atypical non token females(OANTF) and then by Occupationally non atypical token females(ONATF), followed by Occupationally atypical token males(OATM), followed by Occupationally non atypical non token females(ONANTF), followed by Occupationally atypical non token males(OANTM). Then Occupationally non atypical token males (ONATM) and finally Occupationally non atypical non token males(ONANTM).

TABLE 2

Summary result of Anova on the measure of Perceived Stress

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F
Gender (A)	2286.65	1	2286.65	108.208**
Occutype (B)	693.25	1	693.25	54.833**
Numstatus (C)	470.92	1	470.92	32.031**
Gender * Occutype (A*B)	14.42	1	14.42	1.251
Gender * Numstatus (A*C)	82.13	1	82.13	7.3**
Occutype * Numstatus (B*C)	25.78	1	25.78	2.584
Gender * Occutype * Numstatus (A*B*C)	30.041	1	30.041	6.077**

Perceived Stress and Coping Resources among Male and Female Employees in Diverse Workforces

Total	110612	250	* F Significant at 0.05 Level ** F Significant at 0.01Level
Occutype- Occupational Gender Type, Numstatus- Proportional Numerical Strength			

TABLE 2 shows that there exists a highly significant difference between the eight groups formulated on the basis of Gender, Occupational Gender Type and Proportional Numerical composition at workplace in their perceived stress as reflected in their significant interactional effects.

TABLE 3

Summary result of Anova on the measure of Available coping resources (depicting F values).

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F
Gender (A)	35681.796	1	35681.796	98.614**
Occutype (B)	3725.204	1	3725.204	10.2**
Numstatus (C)	2153.235	1	2153.235	6.807**
Gender * Occutype (A*B)	5505.302	1	5505.302	14.043**
Gender * Numstatus (A*C)	156.875	1	156.875	0.555
Occutype * Numstatus (B*C)	3396.98	1	3396.98	9.492**
Gender * Occutype * Numstatus (A*B*C)	1043.256	1	1043.256	4.411*
Total	100612	250	* F Significant at 0.05 Level ** F Significant at 0.01Level	

TABLE 3 shows that there exists a highly significant difference between the eight groups formulated on the basis of Gender, Occupational Gender Type and Proportional Numerical composition at workplace in their available coping resources as reflected in their significant interactional effects.

DISCUSSION

The present study attempts to fill in the gaps of the previous researches done in this area by providing an integrated approach to gain an insight into the probable intervening variables of Gender, Proportional (Male-Female) numerical strength at Workplace (Tokens/Non Tokens) and Occupational gender type (in terms of Gender Atypical/ Non Atypical or Neutral) on perceived stress and available coping resources.

The pattern of result hints at the need to understand the experiences of men and women at workplace beyond demographical structures of diversity. Table 2 shows that there exists a highly significant difference between the eight groups formulated on the basis of Gender, Occupational Gender Type and Proportional Numerical composition at workplace in their perceived workplace

stress as reflected in their significant interactional effects thus confirming Hypothesis 1. Most of the previous gender based studies have explored the level of stress experienced by female employees in contrast to their male counterparts. Then with the current thrust on diversity promotion, many researchers tried to link the workplace experiences of employees with their relative numerical strength. One such attempt was by Kanter(1977), who in her theory of Tokenism discussed the workplace experiences of women minorities in contrast to male workplace majorities. According to the theory, in uniform groups, members and observers may never become self conscious about the common culture and type, which remain taken for granted and implicit. But the pressure of a person or two bearing a different set of social characteristics increases the self consciousness of the numerically dominant population and the consciousness of observers about what makes the dominants a class. This gives rise to three token dynamics: increased visibility of token minorities, isolation of token minorities and role encapsulation of token minorities. However a valuable insight is provided by the results of the present study. It's interesting to note that other than gender and relative numerical strength that have been more or less been the center of all such gender based research work in organizational set up, there is another factor that has been instrumental in affecting the perceived stress of male and female employees i.e. the gender typing of their occupation. The perceived stress, thus is getting affected by a mosaic of complex interactive forces of gender, numbers and stereotyping. The exclusive focus of various affirmative actions aiming to promote diversity at workplaces has been the numbers, but as can be seen in the obtained results, numbers or relative male- female numerical strength is just one part of the story. Till the time we take into account how males and females are situated in the macrocosm, what stereotypes, prescriptions and norms guide their behavior and determine their experiences, we would always arrive at a very lopsided understanding of the existing scenario.

Gender typing of occupations has an important bearing on the perceived stress level of individuals as the constant reminders about the gender atypicality of the choice of occupation both from the “insiders” working within the organisation and the “outsiders” who are part of the larger social network of which the organisation is a part, accentuates the perceived stress experienced by both males and females working in atypical jobs. Numerically few employees further feel lost in relation to their numerically major counterparts, however when these numerically few are treated as ‘outsiders’ in the very job itself by virtue of their ‘atypical choice’, matter worsens. However the situation is worst for females in gender atypical jobs as can be seen in the high mean scores for perceived stress for female tokens in gender atypical jobs (Table 1). Female employees are often damned as ‘gender deviates’ if they adhere to the prevalent ‘masculine’ job descriptions to get into the fold and are damned again if they adhere to their own feminine gender descriptions by getting labeled as misfit in the organizational functioning, thus increasing their level of perceived stress. However interestingly even in neutral jobs females didn't fare any better when they are numerically few in number as reflected in the low mean score of ONATF in comparison to males (as depicted in Table 1).

The findings are in line with Theory of Gendered Organizations (Acker, 1990) which argues that Males benefit from being male in a working world designed to reward stereotypically masculine attributes. As per Williams (1995) the cultural beliefs about masculinity and femininity are an integral part of the structure of the work world and serve to limit women's and enhance men's opportunities. According to the Williams/Acker theory, women do not face difficult times at workplace simply because they lack work experience, seniority, or other forms of human capital. Instead, or in addition, women are disadvantaged because the typical woman does not belong to

the disembodied category of the ideal worker: one free from non-work (e.g., family) obligations and distractions. Also certain insights are provided by the theory of workplace Tokenism proposed by Kanter(1977) in terms of the processes resulting whenever a group is skewed such that a clearly definable subgroup. Kanter (1977) reported three interactional perceptual tendencies leading to negative token dynamics: **Visibility** that reflects the heightened attention directed toward Tokens, who always stand out in their work groups and thus suffer **exacerbated pressures to perform**, **Contrast** that refers to the exaggeration of differences between Tokens and the numeric majority, dominants, which may result in the **Social Isolation** of Tokens and finally, **Assimilation** that refers to the stereotyped perception of Tokens that may lead to **Role Encapsulation** at workplace in terms of the tasks and projects expected out of Tokens. As depicted in the results (Table 1) ,perceived stress by token males and females are relatively high in comparison to their non token counterparts clearly hinting at the possible impact the negative dynamics of heightened visibility, contrast and assimilation has on the perceived level of stress.

Similar patterns have been reflected with respect to available coping resources, as can be seen in Table 3, the eight groups show significant difference with respect to their perception with respect to available coping resources. The overall experience of any employee at workplace in terms of the level of stress perceived and the coping resources believed to be available is not affected by the gender of the employee alone, or by the numerical strength of their social group alone or by the gender appropriateness of their occupation in isolation rather it's an interactive effect of all these three factors that lead to the overall perception of stress and available coping resources. The present study has revealed that the overall perception of employees is embedded in the macro context created by socio cultural factors involving complex mosaic of status and power play between the genders and further the arena for this power play is set in the form of interactional contexts that constantly churn out these workplace experiences. Thus it is important for us to acknowledge that the way males and females are situated with respect to each other has important bearing on our attempts to achieve gender integration at the organizational level in the truest sense.

IMPLICATIONS

The empowerment initiatives taken up by our government are aimed to increase women representation in every sphere of life, in order to empower them and improve their workplace experiences. These initiatives with their exclusive focus on restoring numerical balance, draw heavily on the classic work of Rosabeth Moss Kanter (1977) and Drude Dahlerup(1988).However it's important to point out that Kanter's and Dahlerup's exclusive focus on numbers in terms of the 'critical mass' needed is just one part of the story. It's important to situate the stakeholders in the larger canvass and have a macro approach towards the issue of diversity.

LIMITATIONS

1. The present study consisted of roughly a sample size of 30 participants in each group. This sample size does not provide a safe basis for generalization of the findings of the study.
2. Generalizations are constrained since the sample was taken from few places in Delhi and NCR region only. As random sampling methods were not utilized, participants of this study are not representative.
3. Data was collected from different work organizations with different size, structure and work culture.

CONCLUSION

The study offers an insight about how males and females are situated differently in our society and since workplaces are part of the larger societal structure only, there is a need to adopt a socio-organizational perspective to understand workplace dynamics in order to harness the potential of employees in a fruitful manner.

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Positive Thinking Can Change Our Life

Sonal D. Parmar¹

ABSTRACT:

Our mind is a thought factory. It is a busy factory, producing countless thoughts in one day. There are two main ways of thinking; Thinking positively and thinking negatively. Over the year's lot of research done on the positive effects of being positive and the negative effects of being negative. The research is clear. Being positive is not just a nice way to live. It's the way to live. A positive thinking helps you cope more easily with the daily affairs of life. It brings optimism into your life, and to avoid worries and negative thinking. Negative thinking, for a start, makes you feel bad in the present. So it is better to think positively instead of think negatively.

Keywords: *Positive, Negative, and Thinking.*

"There is little difference in people, but that little difference makes a big difference. The little difference is attitude. The big difference is whether it is positive or negative."

Learn more below about the effects of negative thinking versus positive thinking. Why? Because the type of thoughts that you choose to focus on will shape your reality. They learn to notice their thoughts. Are you a positive person? Read the following descriptions of negative thinking versus positive thinking and find out not only where you are, but also where you can be. Thinking plays a very important role in our everyday life. Every action is accompanied by a thought.

Much of your behavior depends on your attitudes. If your attitudes are negative, you can expect to be vulnerable to addictions and psychosomatic disorders, and the resulting lack of focus and concentration may degrade every area of your life. A positive attitude can be developed by monitoring and disciplining your thoughts on a moment-by-moment basis

There are two main ways of thinking; Thinking positively and thinking negatively. For a pessimist, there is always something to worry about, nothing is ever quite right, bad events seem to last forever, and they outweigh the positive ones. Life means living in fear, sadness or anger most of the time.

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Positive Thinking Can Change Our Life

An optimist is someone who generally keeps a positive attitude, has a good mood, and tends to look for the silver lining of apparent difficulties or negative circumstances. Optimists don't dwell on worries. If they feel defeated, they also feel it's temporary. They usually also choose to accentuate the positive.

Negative thinking, for a start, makes you feel bad in the present. One of the most common displays of negative thinking fears an event in the future - something that perhaps will never happen. Frankly speaking thinking positively is much better for yourself and your surroundings. Any negative thought can have terrible consequences. Jealousy is an imperfection that man has a role to play in the creation of negative thinking.

Thinking positively shows that there is a mutual respect between two people. A positive attitude helps you cope more easily with the daily affairs of life. It brings optimism into your life, and to avoid worries and negative thinking.

With a positive attitude you see the bright side of life, become optimistic, and expect the best to happen. When we allow ourselves to think negatively we limit our potential in many ways. The worst thing is that we may be so wrapped in negativity that we cannot even see that there are ways out. However, there is always a choice. The key is your awareness of your own thoughts; then you can decide which type of thoughts you want to focus on.

HOW TO DEVELOPING A POSITIVE ATTITUDE?

Learn more below positive thinking

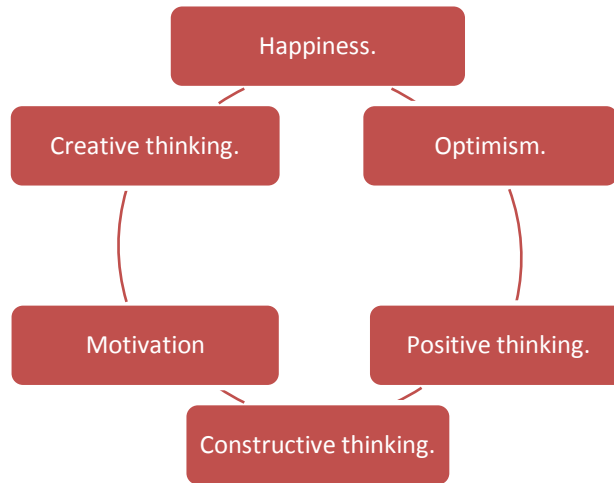
1. Choose to be happy.
2. When negative thoughts enter your mind, just refuse to look at them, doing your best to substitute them with happy thoughts
3. Look at the bright side of life
4. Choose to be optimistic.
5. Find reasons to smile more often
6. Have faith in yourself, and believe that the Universe can help you.
7. Associate yourself with happy people.
8. Read inspiring stories, inspiring quotes.

“Negative attitude says: you cannot achieve success”.

“Positive attitude says: You can achieve success”.

Positive Thinking Can Change Our Life

Positive attitude depends on this following ways:



Over the year's lot of research done on the positive effects of being positive and the negative effects of being negative. The research is clear. Being positive is not just a nice way to live. It's the way to live. Here is advantage of positivity.

ADVANTAGES OF POSITIVITY

1. Expecting success and not failure.
2. It helps you achieve goals and attain success.
3. It brings more happiness into your life.
4. It produces more energy.
5. Positive attitude increases your faith in your abilities, and brings hope for a brighter future.
6. You become able to inspire and motivate yourself and others.
7. You encounter fewer obstacles and difficulties in your daily life.
8. You get more respect and love from people.
9. Life smiles at you.
10. Making you feel inspired.
11. It gives you the strength not to give up, if you encounter obstacles on your way.
12. It makes you look at failure and problems as blessings in disguise.
13. Believing in yourself and in your abilities.
14. Enables you to show self-esteem and confidence.
15. You look for solutions, instead of dwelling on problems.
16. You see and recognize opportunities.

Positive Thinking Can Change Our Life

A positive attitude leads to happiness and success and can change your whole life. This light affects not only you and the way you look at the world, but it also affects your environment and the people around you.

CONCLUSION:

Thus we know two kind of thinking or thoughts first one is positive and the second one is negative. With a positive attitude/thinking we see the bright side of life, become optimistic, and expect the best to happen. When we allow ourselves to think negatively we limit our potential in many ways. A positive attitude helps you cope more easily with the daily affairs of life. It brings optimism into your life, and to avoid worries and negative thinking. Negative thinking, for a start, makes you feel bad in the present. So it is better to think positively instead of think negatively.

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Contemporary Religious Fundamentalism

Dr. Uma S. Sharma¹

Keywords: *Positive, Negative, and Thinking.*

Though living side by side for centuries, the sentiments Hindus and Muslims have never adequately understood or trusted one another, and killings, partition and wars have resulted. Thus a fresh look at the religious fundamentalism is not hard to justify. Not that India-Pakistan and India-Bangladesh relations can be equated with the. Hindu- members in Pakistan are negligible, and Muslim participation in India's conflicts with Pakistan has always been more than nominal. But the two subjects, how the neighboring nations get along and how the neighboring communities do, are not unconnected.

Passions, however, overtake our understanding. We take sides before we have grasped what's happened and is happening. We are merely more polarized, not better informed, after we have read and talked of issues such as Shah Bano or of Babri Masjid Ram Janmabhoomi. Our religious fundamentalism and the consequential communal riots have many dimensions, including the commercial, the political and the criminal, but it is undeniable that they fuel polarization and also feed on it.

Religious fundamentalism in the South Asian region has assumed serious proportions in the last few decades. Sri Lanka, India Pakistan and to some extent Bangladesh face this problem. It is therefore necessary to examine this problem in detail.

The question that crops up is what is religious fundamentalism? Why does it get aggravated so as to express itself violently. At the same time the difference between ethnicity and religious fundamentalism too should be clarified. Thus we first come to the issue of ethnicity. Ethnicity, anthropologists and Sociologists maintain, is a feeling of primordial identity with one's social religious, linguistic or cultural group. A writer in New Left Review puts it as:

Hindu-Muslim encounter. Both communities live in all three countries, even if

"All through the twentieth century the significance of social life in setting patterns of political action has been extensive and usually unpredicted. Neither its treatment by the nineteenth century 'rationalist' as a retrograde piece of barbarism nor its biological racial explanations by their 'romantic' foes stood well the test of further experience."

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Contemporary Religious Fundamentalism

Thus ethnicity in the changing society, a society where the inter- group dynamics and inter group balance of power and changing, becomes much more than a primordial feeling. South East Asia is characterized by rich ethnic diversity and also witnesses large scale ethnic violence. The ethnic problem in Sri Lanka is an example. India too has its own share of ethnic conflict. The Nagas, the Mizos, the Assamese, the Bodos, and at the Gorkhas have been fighting for their ethnic demands. Pakistan too has its own share of ethnic diversity among the Sindhis, Baluchis , Pathans, Punjabis and Mohajirs along with the Hindus, Muslims and the Christians.

The Hindu Muslims problem does not fall strictly speaking within the ethnic category. The Hindus and the Muslims, from on region are from the same ethnic stock. But the present conditions are so complex and rapidly changing that ethnic and religious category, like caste categories get confused. Broadlly speaking the religious category does transcend the ethnic category. However, this does not mean that Hindus and Muslims would never unite on ethnic issues. For example, Tamil Hindus and Muslims might react together on the language issues.

A similar possibility exists regarding Kerala and Kashmir. Thus, the regional identities on certain occasions assume greater importance than their religious identity. However, there is much greater possibility of the religious identity assuming more serious proportions. Communal conflict, too, like ethnic conflict in a society in transition is basically causes by renegotiation of inter-communal status. Throwing light on this issue, Ashgar Ali Engineer observes:

"The Muslims in the post independence period, if not earlier, were a disadvantaged group, and are even now getting increasingly marginalized. In a ballot-box oriented set-up, a large minority like the Muslims has its own political weight. This causes where politicians are tempted to resort to caste and communal appeal. All marginalized groups, including the backwards and the Dalits, want to exploit theist voting power to renegotiate their status and these pressures cause their own problems."

The ethnic imbalance caused by migration on large scale in a developing economy like India, creates tense situations that on occasions explode into violence in the form of communal riots. But, on closer examination the issue would be found to be more of economic in nature, wile we believe that it is fundamentally an ethnic conflict.

Modern capitalist development has led to the aggravating of Ethnic and religious conflict. Thus it would be wrong to look for the roots of the problem in medieval period. Though, during that period there was strong religious and ethnic prejudice, the communal of fundamentalism did not exist. Differentiating between the terms being religious and religious fundamentalism, Ashgar Ali Engineer clarifies:

The former are accentuated by religious and metaphysical dogmas while the latter are generated by political and economic issues.

The capitalist from of economic development is uneven and aggravates exploitation and injustice. In a capitalist development certain communities and ethnic groups benefit disproportionately and

others lose disproportionately. The colonization led to marked transition in the socio-economic structure and consequently the shift benefited the Hindus and harmed the political, social and economic interests of the Muslims. The reason for this can be attributed to the fact that the Muslim ruling class were mainly feudal and could not adjust to the shift in the socio economic structure, consequently did not take to industrial capitalism, which the Hindu did. Unlike India, Pakistan, even today maintains a largely feudal structure, and consequently industrial capitalism has not struck deep roots. This could be the chief reason for democracy not getting strongly rooted in the nation. In India too, the Muslims were largely left out of the process of development and it is the Hindus who benefited from it. Focusing on the consequences of losing out of the process of development, Ashgar Ali Engineer remarks:

One hand, the community which loses out finds no incentive to modernize and clings much more severely to its primordial identity. On the other hand, this produces a reaction among other communities, especially the majority community. The minority community is perceived as 'fanatical' and highly 'communal' for stressing its primordial identity.

Another characteristic of capitalism is urbanization. A large mass from the countryside shifts to the cities in search of employment. This leads to increasing pressure on the cities that are already over burdened in terms of space and resources. Thus, the migrants add to the already existing large slums and congested localities. But off from the culture and community, they seek to compensate for this by clinging to religion more fastidiously. This inclination towards religiosity is shrewdly manipulated by the politicians for their vested political interests. The one man one vote system of democracy makes it a very potent instrument of winning elections, and most of the politicians exploit the religious sentiments for ensuring their victory in the electoral process.

Religion in India undoubtedly plays an important role, not only in the social but also in the political sphere. Religion, in fact, is all pervasive as far as India is concerned. It was believed that religion would play a progressively less significant role with the spread of scientific education and attaining of modern temperament. Unfortunately, even with independence this has not happened. Besides, being secular state, it requires that religion be confined to the four walls of the home and public life remain unclenched by it. This too has not happened. Rather, religion has acquired a greater role in public life after independence. Thus, it should be kept in mind that when religion is socially so pervasive it is bound to influence our political sphere. Politicians have not and will not stop exploiting religious sentiments for their vested interests.

A religion, in order to be humane and creative, has to be dialogic. It must enter into dialogue with other religions. It is basically a fundamentalist and monologist religion that provides sustenance to communalism. Fundamentalism provides no scope to dialogue. Harmony in society depends on an ongoing dialogue between various religions and cultures. It is therefore imminent in contemporary India to encourage the process of inter-religious dialogue.

Fundamentalism is a great threat to the plurality and diversity and to the very secular credentials of the country. We cannot remain united if the plurality and diversity are threatened. Thus,

Contemporary Religious Fundamentalism

countering the rise of religious fundamentalism is the need to the hour of the contemporary society.

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Empowerment of Women: A Conceptual Framework

Dr. Anu Dandona¹

ABSTRACT:

The term empowerment has been widely used in the social sciences across a broad variety of disciplines. Empowerment in woman's development is a way of defining, challenging and overcoming barriers in her life through which she increases her ability to shape her life. The process of empowerment will not only be able to improve their skills and access to productive resources, but also succeed in enhancing quality, dignity and work in the society status. The effect of empowerment of women creates a powerful influence on the norms, values and finally the laws that govern these communities (Cheryl 1999; Czuba 1999; Nanette 1999; Page 1999). Empowerment includes cognitive and psychological elements, such as a women's understanding of her condition of subordination and the causes of such conditions. This requires an understanding the self and the cultural and social expectations, which may be activated by education.

Keywords: Empowerment, Women, Challenges, Cognitive and Psychological Elements.

"To call woman the weaker sex is a libel; it is man's injustice to woman. If by strength is meant brute strength, then, indeed, woman is less brute than man. If by strength is meant moral power, then woman is immeasurably man's superior: Has she not greater intuition, is she not more self-sacrificing, has she not greater powers of endurance, has she not greater courage? Without her man could not be. If non-violence is the law of our being, the future is with woman. Who can make a more effective appeal to the heart than woman?"

Mahatma Gandhi

Empowerment can be viewed as means of creating a social environment in which one can make decisions and make choices either individually or collectively for social transformation. It strengthens the innate ability by way of acquiring knowledge, power and experience (Hashemi Schuler and Riley, 1996).

Empowerment is the process of enabling or authorizing individual to think, take action and control work in an autonomous way. It is the process by which one can gain control over one's destiny and the circumstances of one's lives. Empowerment includes control over resources (physical, human, intellectual and financial) and over ideology (beliefs, values and attitudes) (Baltiwala, 1994).

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Empowerment of Women: A Conceptual Framework

It is not merely a feel of greater extrinsic control, but also grows intrinsic capacity, greater self-confidence and an internal transformation of one's consciousness that enables one to overcome external barriers to accessing resources or changing traditional ideology (Pinto, 2001).

Empowerment of women is essentially the process of upliftment of economic, social and political status of women, the traditionally underprivileged ones, in the society. It is the process of guarding them against all forms of violence. Women empowerment involves the building up of a society, a political environment, wherein women can breathe without the fear of oppression, exploitation, apprehension, discrimination and the general feeling of persecution which goes with being a woman in a traditionally male dominated structure. Deepa Narayan in her edited book 'Measuring Empowerment' (www.oup.com) takes " Empowerment as the expansion of assets and capabilities of poor people to participate in, negotiate with, influence control and hold accountable institutions that affect their lives "

Women's empowerment is very essential for the development of society. Empowerment means individuals acquiring the power to think and act freely, exercises choice and fulfil their potential as full and equal members of society. As per the United National Development Fund for women (UNIFEM), the term women's empowerment means:

- Acquiring knowledge and understanding of gender relations and the ways in which these relations may be changed.
- Developing a sense of self-worth, a belief in one's ability to secure desired changes and the right to control one's life.
- Gaining the ability to generate choices exercise bargaining power.
- Developing the ability to organize and influence the direction of social change, to create a more just social and economic order, nationally and internationally.

Thus, empowerment means a psychological sense of personal control or influence and a concern with actual social influence, political power and legal rights. It is a multilevel construct referring to individuals, organizations and community. It is an international, ongoing process centered in the local community, involving mutual respect, critical reflection, caring and group participation, through which people lacking an equal share of valued resources gain greater access to the control over these resources.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature on female empowerment largely follows two approaches. The first set of studies considers the determinants of female empowerment. The second set of studies examines different proxies for female empowerment. Female empowerment is measured by a woman's ability to make household decisions, relative to her husband's ability to make household decisions. Since this ability cannot be explicitly measured, economists study whether variables such as education, contraceptive use, and asset-ownership are correlated with high female empowerment. These self-reported variables reflect the wide variety of choices and decisions at stake in the household bargain: employment, fertility, and resource allocation. Empowerment itself has been measured by a woman's relative physical mobility, economic security, decision-making ability, freedom

from domestic violence, and political awareness and participation. A large body of literature finds that a woman's access to employment outside the house increases her household bargaining power (for a study in Bangladesh, see Anderson and Eswaran, 2009; for a study in India, see Rahman and Rao, 2004). The ownership of assets, in particular, is one important way through which access to employment helps empower women in developing countries (for example, see Agarwal, 2001, for evidence from India). In addition, several analyses have found that access to credit programs— whether through micro-finance organizations or rotating savings and credit associations (ROSCA)— has a positive effect on female empowerment (for a study in Kenya, see Anderson and Baland, 2002; for a study in Bangladesh, see Hashemi, Schuler and Riley, 1996). Studies have also found a positive link between empowerment and contraceptive use (for a study in Bangladesh, see Schuler and Hashemi, 1994), as well as between the woman's influence on resource allocation and her family's social status (for a study in Bangladesh, see Quisumbing and de la Bri`ere, 2000). In particular, the more educated she and her father are relative to her husband, the more empowered she is. Relative physical mobility is another important determinant of autonomy, defined as degree of control over microcredit loans, since it reflects the woman's access to outside employment opportunities (Hashemi, Schuler and Riley, 1996). A study of the determinants of female autonomy in India finds that a better-educated woman has greater bargaining power, as measured by physical mobility and say in household resource allocation, through the channel of increased information (Rahman and Rao, 2004). The same study also finds culture, as measured by state fixed-effects, to significantly increase bargaining power despite controlling for religion and caste. Further evidence from India shows strong positive correlations between female education as a proxy for bargaining power, and freedom of movement and better maternal health as bargaining outcomes (see Malhotra, Pande and Grown, 2003 for a review of this literature). The literature further agrees that the clearing of marriage markets depends on the number of men and women in the market (for theoretical models, see Becker, 1973a,b; Neelakantan and Tertilt, 2008). As a result, the local sex ratio works through the spousal age ratio to influence marriage markets and therefore household bargaining power. Scholars have found that, particularly in the Indian context, women have less bargaining power if their husbands are significantly older (for evidence from India, see Caldwell, Reddy and Caldwell, 1983; Kantor, 2003). Since empowerment is an unobservable latent variable, economists use its observable characteristics as proxies for empowerment. Women with high values of the proxies, such as a greater spousal age ratio, access to outside employment or a high level of political participation, are also likely to have greater bargaining power. Thus, the indicators of a high level of empowerment include (1) access to outside employment, (2) physical mobility, and (3) political participation (Anderson and Eswaran, 2009; Hashemi, Schuler and Riley, 1996; Rahman and Rao, 2004). The corresponding dependent variables we use to reflect high levels of female autonomy are (1) the ownership of identification cards for the national government's rural employment guarantee scheme, which proxies for access to outside employment, (2) the ability to leave the household without permission, which reflects physical mobility, and (3) participation in weekly village council meetings, which measures political participation. We choose these variables because they represent a diverse set of ways in which

the Mahila Samakhya program can potentially empower women. With the exception of analyses of credit extension mechanisms, the studies discussed above focus on interventions targeted at the individual. Only a small number of papers look at community-level interventions. For instance, Imai and Eklund (2008) use survey data on a women's community-based organization in rural Papua New Guinea to assess the effectiveness of autonomous women's groups compared to those that receive external support. Their analysis— using a Heckman Selection Model as well as Propensity Score Matching— shows that the autonomous groups are more effective in improving child welfare. Thus, community-level interventions targeted at women can generate significant benefits to children's well-being. One of the few analyses of Mahila Samakhya uses data from the state of Bihar to evaluate the program's effect on community-level trust and social capital (Janssens, 2010). The paper uses Propensity Score Matching to calculate Intent-to-Treat estimates of the program. Matching women from treated villages to those from untreated villages, results suggest that the program significantly increases trust and engenders social capital. Participants are more likely to contribute to local educational and infrastructural community projects. Significant spillovers also exist with nonparticipants; non-participant households in program villages exhibit higher levels of trust and are more likely to engage in community building activities than households in non-program villages. Other work examines allied aspects of the program without explicitly evaluating it: Kandpal and Baylis (2013) ask whether participation affects the diversity of participants' peer group, while Kandpal and Baylis (2011) examine whether friends' participation improves female bargaining power and child welfare outcomes. None of these studies considers the causal model behind the mechanisms of community-level interventions. Next, we present a model that decomposes the effect of program participation in a community-level intervention.

Education and work as determinants of women empowerment

Many studies that have been dedicated to this subject consider the formal education and organizational work as the effective factors of women empowerment. When women have formal education and enter universities and then start doing part time or full time jobs in organizations, they can have a better control over their lives. Studies show that in developing countries, education and employment strengthen the situation of women in society, and increase their authority and power (Mason, et.al 2002). Also, according to the researches done in western countries, education and working empower women and increase their effectiveness in their personal, social and organizational life (Connel, 1987).

In the contemporary world, knowledge is one of the sources of power. The contemporary world has witnessed those powers of force and money (military and economic power) have been replaced by the power of knowledge. Gaining knowledge leads to power and lack of knowledge for women leads to their poverty. When women gain the required knowledge for having skill and power, the feeling of psychological enablement strengthens in them (Spreitzer, 1996). Lots of studies have considered illiteracy of women as the main cause of their problems and literacy as the cause of their freedom (Stromquist, 1997). Therefore, it is necessary for women of each society to gain the required knowledge for being involved in decision-making.

Empowerment of Women: A Conceptual Framework

Women face main challenges in making a balance between their personal and working life; their challenges are much more compared to that of men (Nelson, Burke, 2000). Most researches show a clear division of responsibilities, namely men take responsibility for doing job outside the house and women take liability for children and housework such as cooking (Sharpi, 1984; Berk, 1985; Pleck, 1985; Warde and Hetherington, 1993; Baxter, 1993; Sullivan, 1996). Also, women spend two times more time for doing housework compared to men (Berk, 1985; Baxter, 1993; Sullivan, 1996). Many studies indicate that women, in spite of their great responsibility, are satisfied with the division of work in the house (Benin and Agostinelli, 1988; Blair and Johnson, 1992; Lennon and Rosenfield, 1994; Greenstein, 1996; DeMaris and Longmore, 1996). These results raised some questions about justice and equality at home and the approach towards housework and the possibilities of changing it. To explain these paradoxical clichés some theories have been offered, for example lack of sources and power in marriage make women to have little choices in regard to these clichés; the traditional ideology of gender makes women accept house work, and finally, the fact that women work less than their husbands outside the house, strengthens the approach that house work is the responsibility of women (Baxter and Western, 1998).

Power relation in family is one of the subjects under study in the familial institution. When the power gap in family is large, women and children are taught to obey and they are not encouraged to be independent. Women in these kinds of societies learn to accept the unequal division of power (Hofstede, 2001, ch. 2). In modern time, in western societies, the power gap between men and women has decreased. Women's education and income have given them more power in the family. But, the experiences of non-western societies may not be similar to those of western ones. Providing education and occupation for women is the required but not the sufficient condition for empowerment of women. A study undergone in China shows that having more access to education and job opportunities does not necessarily lead to change of power relations in the family (Wolf, 1992). In patriarchal societies, having access to education and having income do not necessarily bring independence and the culture is in a way that does not let women make decisions independently. For example, a research that was done in two areas in north India shows that although women had formal education and occupation, patriarchy was an obstacle on the way of their empowerment (Sharma, 1991, p. 92).

Women Psychological Empowerment

Empowerment means to grant or delegate power to someone (Conger and Kanungo 1988: 474). Empowerment refers to "the process of influencing over events and important conclusions for an individual or a team" (Fawcett et al., 1994:471). The term power means the capacity to obtain a desirable result (Russell, 1962). Empowerment is a process whereby an individual believes in his or her efficacy. Empowerment tends to be more talked about at the cognitive level than realized in practice. It is not a personal characteristic but it is a dynamic process that reflects an individual's opinions about person-environment relationship (Mishra and Spreitzer, 1998:579; Siegall and Gardner, 1999:705). Thus the true benefits of empowerment will not be discovered

unless people first perceive themselves as being powerful (Siegal and Gardner, 1999: 705). Empowerment of women means acquiring the power to think, acting freely, developing a sense of self-worth, a belief in one's ability to make desired changes and the right to control one's life, exercise choice, bargaining power, and fulfilling their potentiality as equal members of society. Generally empowerment is any process and activity by which women control their lives. Empowerment-related literature can generally be grouped into four categories. Individual-oriented that includes personal feelings, personal power, self-determination, and other cognitive variables (Baird, 1994; Fulford and Enz, 1995; Spreitzer, 1995), result-oriented studies that have examined successful cases of empowerment (Berman, 1995; Burbidge, 1995). Operation-oriented literature that explains the quality of meeting empowerment through organizational de-layering, employee involving, establishing commitment, teaming, and intervening (Bogg, 1995; Lashley, 1995; Nixon, 1994; Osborne, 1994). Trait-oriented research is characterized by exploring the preconditions of control and power, trust and inclusion, accountability, honesty, and risk taking (Anfuso, 1994; Foster-Fishman and Key, 1995). The psychological empowerment model has six dimensions: Impacts / self-determination, being meaningful, Professional growth, independence/decision-making, Competence/self-efficacy and Trust. These components all contributed to a person sense of empowerment.

- **Impact / self-determination**, which refer to an individual, are perceived degree of influence over outcomes in one's work and family environments. People must believe that their behaviour will influence on what happens around them. In other words, an individual must have the opportunity to exert influence in order to have an impact on outcomes at work (Spreitzer, 1995). The term Choice for women means providing women with genuine opportunities to have not only their voice heard, but giving them real power to control and influence over work processes and results. Self-determination refers to everyone's internal need to control the environment (Conger and Kanungo, 1988). It is also defined as women's need to choose, to initiate and regulate actions or to choose the process and work behaviours at work; and should be perceived as an opportunity to make a choice.
- **Being meaningful**, if a work is going to be done by women managers or employees they should feel that it is a valuable work. They evaluate the job based on their own values and feel that they are doing something meaningful.
- **Professional growth** refers to personal development in job and profession. Empowered women feel more professional growth in their career as employee or managers.
- **Independence/decision-making**, Empowerment is related to independence. Empowered women are expected to be independent and make decision on their own. The argument of the empowerment supporters is that women should be empowered to make more decisions about their own lives.
- **Competence and self efficacy** points at one's work role efficacy or personal mastery; women must feel that they are competent to engage in the behaviours required by the organization or family. Empowerment is about self-actualization and competence. Competence and self-efficacy refer to enable the women to be confidence in their

Empowerment of Women: A Conceptual Framework

capacity to make the choices. The useful exercise of every other kind of power depends on competence. Competence is acquired through formal training or education (Forrester, 2000). Self-efficacy construct is an aspect of empowerment that combines intention and belief in one's ability into a personal outcome expectation (Bandura, 1982; Mischel, 1973). It reflects the extent to which women have been both personally engaged by the organization and mobilized sufficiently to project expectations for themselves into the future.

- **Trust,** Empowerment is connected with trust. Trust creates an atmosphere for empowerment and grows in such an atmosphere. Trust requires values like solidarity and maturity. Empowerment cannot be installed like software but must be grown. We can't empower women, but we can create an environment in which they can empower themselves (Willis, 1999: 73).

These factors can be viewed as the essential prerequisites to motivate empowering behaviours in women's life or work. Since organizations play an important role in developing women's awareness of and trust, lots of women take advantage from them. By solving problems, gaining experience, and working together, women will become aware of their own subordinate position in society and become more capable of changing it (Himmelstrand, 1990:112; Scheyvens, 2003, 27). Women need to be empowered with skills, knowledge, and confidence to determine the development path they wish to follow and to challenge the entrenched organizational structures which hamper them.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- Educate women about their human rights, personal strengths, skills, and resources to foster their vitality and resilience as personal protective factors that offset poverty.
- Engage women and girls as active partners in planning and operating programs at all decision-making levels.
- Encourage development of ownership, optimism, and confidence in their ability to be effective by providing opportunities for participating in entrepreneurial, social and other development activities.
- Encourage and provide opportunities for expanding and strengthening capacity building community networks through which information and entrepreneurial skills are shared.
- Provide and strengthen existing primary, secondary, and higher education and training of women and girls.
- Train local women peer coaches as mental health resources for the community using available technology such as online communication and instruction. Psychologists, social workers and other mental health professionals can serve the community by training peer coaches to recognize mental health problems and provide services or referrals.
- Develop and evaluate a program that deploys trained psychologists working with peer coaches to provide services and training.

Empowerment of Women: A Conceptual Framework

- Offer low cost insurance or government grants to provide health and mental health services in rural areas.
- Train health/mental healthcare providers to deliver accessible, informed, and nondiscriminatory services and education, addressing the unique health/mental health needs of girls and women with disabilities

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A Study of Gender Inequality in India

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ABSTRACT:

This study considers the gender inequality that exists among every region, social class and prevents the growth of Indian economy from improving the lives of Indian people. The reality of gender inequality in India is very complex and diversified, because it exists in every field like education, employment opportunities, income, health, cultural issues, social issues, economic issues etc. An attempt has been made to find out those factors which are responsible for this problem in India. So, this paper highlights the multi-dimensional context of gender inequalities prevalent in India. Overall, the study indicates the inequality in economic, social, cultural and legal biasness which are of a great challenge for policy-makers and social scientists to establish proper equality in the entire social field. The researchers have tried to suggest some relevant strategies and policies implication for reducing this gender inequality and to promote the dignified position for Indian women.

Keywords: *Gender Inequality, Economic, Social & Cultural issues*

After the World War II, in the post modernization era, one of the issues which had attracted the attention of the policy makers and social scientists was gender issues and concerns. Gender issues mean the discussion on both men and women, though women who suffer from gender inequality. From all gender issues, gender inequality is the most prevalent in India. Consideration of gender inequality is now common in Government, Non-Government organizations, and in the politics in India. The policy makers are strongly believed that a positive commitment to gender equality and equity will strengthen every area of action to reduce poverty because women can bring new energy and new sights. A lot of debates are going on women and their development since last few decades. Thus, several national and international organizations are trying to promote the advancement of women & their full participation in developmental process & trying to eliminate all forms of inequality against women. The importance of feminism has been steadily growing and gaining intellectual legitimacy.

GENDER INEQUALITY:-

Gender Inequality means disparity between men and women in different social, economical & political, cultural and legal aspects.

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This problem is simply known as gender biasness, which in simple term means the gender stratification or making difference a male or a female. According to the United Nations Development Program's Human Development Report (2013), India ranks 132 out of 187 countries on the gender inequality index- lower than Pakistan (123). The report states that all countries in South Asia, with the exception of Afghanistan, were a better place for women than India, with Sri Lanka (75) topping them all.

Types of Gender Inequality: - According to Nobel Laureate Prof. Amartya Sen (2001), there are seven types of gender inequalities at present in India. Here is a brief explanation of all the types of gender inequality.

- 1) **Mortality Inequality:-** In this, Inequality between women and men directly involves matters of life and death, and takes the brutal form of unusually high mortality rates for women and a consequent preponderance of men in the total population, as opposed to the preponderance of women found in societies with little or no gender bias in health care and nutrition.
- 2) **Natality Inequality:** - In this kind of inequality a preference is given to boys over girls. It is ardent in many of the male dominated societies and these manifests in the form of parents wanting their newborn to be a boy rather than a girl. With the availability of modern techniques to determine the gender of foetus, sex selective abortions has become common in India.
- 3) **Employment Inequality:** - In terms of employment as well as promotion at work women often face greater handicap than men. This is clearly exemplified as men getting priorities in getting better work opportunities and pay scale than their female counterparts.
- 4) **Ownership Inequality:** - In many societies ownership of property can also be very unequal. Since ages the traditional property rights have favored men in the most parts of India. The absence of claims to property can not only reduce the voice of women, but also make it harder for women to enter and flourish in commercial, economic and even some social activities.
- 5) **Special Opportunity Inequality:** - Even when there is little difference in basic facilities including schooling, the opportunities of higher education may be far fewer for young women than young men. Indeed, gender biasness in higher education and professional training can be observed in India.
- 6) **Basic-Facility Inequality:** - Even when demographic characteristics do not show much or any anti-female bias, there are other ways in which women can have less than a square deal.
- 7) **Household inequality:** - There are often enough, basic inequalities in gender relations within the family or the household, which can take many different forms. Even in cases in which there are no overt signs of anti-female bias in, say, survival or son-preference or education, or even in promotion to higher executive positions, the family arrangements can be quite unequal in terms of sharing the burden of housework and child care.

HISTORY OF GENDER INEQUALITY

If we highlight ancient India, an Indian woman was in the position of high esteem and was pronounced by the word of maata (mother) or Devi (goddess) in the Vedas and Upanishads. Same as Manu Smriti, woman was considered as a precious being and in the early Vedic age, girls were looked after with care. Then practice of polygamy deteriorated the position of woman and in the medieval period, the practices of purdha system, dowry system, and sati system came into being. But with the passage of time, the status of woman was lowered.

After the development of science and technology, female feticides is being practiced by large number of people. This has also led to a drop in the female ratio. The Indian census 2011 state wise shows that Kerala represent the highest sex ratio with 1084 females per 1000 males while Haryana represents the lowest sex ratio with just 877 women per 1000 males. Then the dowry became popular and it was the starting period of female infanticide practices in few areas.

In India, a sex-selection phenomenon has been in place since the 1980s, with men born during this period now at marriageable age. Then the urbanization since the 1990s where a lot of families and men have moved to cities to look for work. People are much wealthier but at the same time there's pressure to produce sons as an heir, so educated, wealthy families are now more likely to have sex selection. These entire factors are coming to play and creating this toxic mixture, which has turned violence against women into a bigger issue today.

The origin of the gender inequality has been always the male dominance. At least in India, a woman still needs the anchor of a husband and a family. Their dominating nature has led women to walk with their head down. It was all practiced from the beginning and is followed till date. In the case of a woman's reservation in parliament, the opposing parties believe that women are born to do household tasks and manage children and family.

In many parts of India, women are viewed as an economic and financial liability despite contribution in several ways to our society, economy and by their families. The crime against women is increasing day by day. Domestic Violence, Rape, Sexual harassment, molestation, eve-teasing, forced prostitution, sexual-exploitation, at work places are a common affair today. So, it's an alarming issue for our country.

The major reasons for the gender inequality are identified as the need of a male heir for the family, huge dowry, continuous physical and financial support to girl child, poverty, domestic – violence, farming as major job for poor and the caste system.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Jayachandran, S. (2014), has presented the roots of gender inequality in developing countries. This paper also discussed the several mechanisms through which the economic development could improve the relative outcomes of women & gender gaps can be reduced as country grows.

Dunn, D. (1998), has focused on the situation of women in scheduled castes and tribes groups which are considered to as 'weaker sections of people' and granted special safeguards and concessions under the Indian Constituents. This paper represented a descriptive picture of scheduled caste and tribe women's status in Indian society and also suggested that socio-economic development plays an important role to reduce the disadvantage of scheduled group women.

Thomas, R.E. (2013), has highlighted his paper with the state of gender based inequality in the modern India. It has presented gender inequality with the help of some facts & figures and representing the inequality practiced in India & its comparison with other Asian & Western countries.

Chaudhary, & Sarkar, D. (2012), has tried to find out some factors i.e. educational status, work participation, level of gender inequality, of the Cooch Behar, a district of West-Bengal, India and suggested some relevant strategies implication for reducing this gender inequality to promote the deprived women of this district.

Raju, E. (2014), has examined the gender discrimination in India on the basis of demographic, social, economic and political context. The paper has broadly discussed the issue of gender inequality, women empowerment & reproductive health among women of India. Some measures under taken by the International and national organizations were also discussed in this paper.

Rustagi, P. (2005), has concluded the great potential of economic growth & increasing women's economic participation towards eliminating gender inequalities in income & wages, unless supported by concerted efforts at altering attitudes towards women's role & contribution that are harbored by different agents within the labor market.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

- 1) To identify the factors which are responsible for gender inequality.
- 2) To give suggestions to reduce gender inequality.

FACTORS BEHIND GROWING GENDER INEQUALITY

There are so many factors which are fully responsible for gender inequality in India. These factors are as follows:-

ECONOMIC FACTORS

- **Labor participation:** - There is wage inequality between man and woman in India. A substantial number of women enter the labor market after thirties, generally after completion of their reproductive roles of child bearing and rearing.
- **Access to credit:** - There are large disparities between men and women in terms of access to banking services. Women often lack collateral for bank loans due to low levels of property ownership and micro-credit schemes have come under scrutiny for coercive lending practices.
- **Occupational inequality:** - Women are not allowed to have combat roles in military services. Permanent commission could not be granted to female officers because they have neither been trained for command nor have been given the responsibility in India.
- **Property Rights:** - Although women have equal rights under the law to own property and receive equal inheritance rights, yet in practice, women are at a disadvantage. The Hindu Succession Act of 2005 provides equal inheritance rights to ancestral and jointly owned property, the law is weakly enforced.
- **Women's inequality in proper inheritance:** - Women are insignificantly deprived of their proper inheritance culturally and religiously as well. The religious constitution doesn't give women equal inheritance; there is a segregation of giving the property to women as they will not be given the property as men can have. Though Islamic constitution permits women having at least half of the property as man, society is reluctant to give the desired property to women let alone giving the equal share.
- **Employment inequality:** - Some common inequalities that take place in the workplace are the gender-based imbalances of individuals in [power](#) and command over the management of the organization. Women are not able to move up into higher paid positions quickly as compared to men. Some organizations have more inequality than others, and the extent to which it occurs can differ greatly. In the workplace the men usually hold the higher positions and the women often hold lower paid positions such as [secretaries](#).

SOCIAL FACTORS

- **Education:** - The female literacy rate in India is lower than the male literacy rate. According to census of India 2011, literacy rate of female is 65.46% compared to males which are 82.14%.
- **Health:-** On health issue, the gender inequality between women's and men's life expectancy and women live compared to men in good health because of lots of violence, disease, or other relevant factors.
- **Patriarchal Society:** - Most of India has strong patriarchal custom, where men hold authority over female family members and inherit property & title. It is the custom where inheritance passes from father to son, women move in with the husband & his family upon marriage & marriages include a bride price or dowry.
- **Dowry:** - The dowry system in India contributes to gender inequalities by influencing the perception that girls are a burden on families. Such belief limits the resources invested by parents in their girls and limit her bargaining power within the family.
- **Gender-based violence:** - Gender-based violence such as rape, sexual assault, insult to modesty, kidnapping, abduction, cruelty by intimate partner or relatives, importation or trafficking of girls, persecution for dowry, indecency and all other crimes are practiced on women. These crimes show the high degree of inequality in India.
- **Women's inequality in decision making:** In India, Women have less authority than men to legal recognition and protection, as well as lower access to public knowledge and information, and less decision-making power both within and outside the home. This is also one of the reasons for inequality in gender.

CULTURAL FACTORS

- **Old age support from sons:** - A key factor driving gender inequality is the preference for sons, as they are deemed more useful than girls. They are supposed to support the old age security of their parents.
- **Patrilineality system:** - It is a common kinship system in which an individual's family membership derives from and is traced through his or her father's lineage. It generally involves the inheritance of property, names, or titles by persons related through one's male kin.
- **Role of sons in religious rituals:** - Another factor is that of religious practices, which can only be performed by males for their parents' afterlife. Sons are often the only person entitled to performing funeral rights for their parents.
- **Son Preference:** - Boys are given the exclusive rights to inherit the family name and properties and they are viewed as additional status for their family. Moreover, the prospect of parents 'losing' daughters to the husband's family and expensive dowry of daughters further discourages parents from having daughters. There is a strong belief that daughter is a liability.

LEGAL & POLITICAL FACTORS

According to the Constitution of India, both men and women are equal in the eyes of the laws and hence they have equal rights. But, unfortunately, legal & political bias has prevented the law to attain the success of equality in gender. This is another reason for inequality in gender.

ANALYSIS & INTERPRETATION: - From the above factors, we can interpret that economic, social, cultural, legal and political factors are responsible for gender inequality in India. India needs to deactivate the gender inequality. The needs of the day are trends where girls are able not only to break out of the culturally determined patterns of employment but also to offer advice about career possibilities that looks beyond the traditional list of jobs. It is surprising that in spite of so many laws, women still continue to live under stress and strain. To ensure equality of status for our women we still have miles to go. Man and Woman are like two wheels of a carriage. The life of one without the other is incomplete.

SUGGESTIONS: - There is a solution of every problem. For reducing gender inequality in India, we should offer high level of education to girls and increase women empowerment. We should also give them opportunity in active politics & social activities so that social integration in Indian society can be made. Government should make policies & strategies regarding stopping the sex identification & abortions. In context of above NGOs can also play an important role to eradicate Gender Inequality. Politicians should frame out policies for increasing social welfare development regarding this issue. The Campaign of our Prime Minister Mr. Narendra Modi “Beti Bachao Beti Padhao” can be successful, when the mindset of Indian society will be changed towards women.

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A Study of Gender Inequality In India

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Key approaches of Education for Rural Transformation

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ABSTRACT:

Rural Transformation involves creating wealth, employment, good health services, water, roads, sanitation, education etc for the betterment of the rural people. Education is one of the key approaches for rural transformation. Education for rural transformation has been given from years but still there is lack of education in many parts of India. This paper talks about some of the key approaches in education that can be used for rural transformation. For proper education proper data is required to show which area lack, which resources like schools, teachers, technologies, literacy rate etc; for these extensive surveys are required. Based on the survey further planning of education can be done like change of curriculum, use of technologies, educational/vocational training, adult education, agricultural education, health education etc.

Keywords: Education, Rural Transformation, Key Approaches – Same Curriculum, Use of technology, Adult Education, Agricultural Education

India is a vast democratic country with diversified culture, languages, religions etc. However we all are facing similar problem irrespective of our religion, languages and culture, to start with Rural Transformation (RT). Rural development doesn't mean urbanisation of rural areas. It does not consist of creation of pucca buildings, metalled roads, electrified houses, TV and video sets in houses. In fact, some of these symptoms of development are noticeable in some villages and yet they cannot be called developed e.g., Kuwait, Sudan, with very high per capita income, cannot be called a 'Developed' country.

The real crust of development is that people living in the rural areas, develop the capability of live well – a life pattern which keeps them in good health, have adequate means to eat, to clothe, a reasonable shelter to live and access to various requisites to life which modern science and technology has made it possible to have, to enjoy life. This does not mean copying urban style of life but one evolved in the socio – eco – cultural milieu which they have inherited. Therefore, content of rural development will vary from area to area.

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Key approaches of Education for Rural Transformation

Pumping in some symptoms of development from outside, lead to sustainable development that is why, perhaps, many of the measures undertaken by outside agencies have failed to create the desired impact on rural development.

Rural Transformation involves creating wealth, employment, good health services, water, roads, sanitation, education etc for the betterment of the rural people.

In many empirical studies, throughout the world, it is found that there is correlation between literacy and development. So for rural transformation education is very important. Today after 64 years of Independence, we have more than 336 crores of adults; who do not know reading and writing. Some of the reasons for this are apparent. To mention some, many children live in unhealthy, unhygienic, crowded conditions, amidst deep social tension and backwardness due to poverty. The caste system, untouchability, orthodoxy and many other social evils and the privileged class had kept the underprivileged illiterates, indeed, shamefully low during the last decade of the 20th century.

As a result of this, out of every hundred children, even if they join the school, seventy five children drop out before they reach 8th standard or complete primary education and they remain virtually illiterate thereafter.

India currently has the largest population of illiterate adults in the world with 287 million. This is 37 per cent of the global total. While India's literacy rate rose from 48 per cent in 1991 to 63 per cent in 2006, "population growth cancelled the gains so there was no change in the number of illiterate adults," There are better tidings for India at the pre-primary and primary level. India features among the countries likely to achieve the pre-primary enrolment target of at least 70 per cent by 2015 along with countries like Australia, Austria, Canada, Denmark, Norway, Sweden and United Kingdom. So, for rural transformation education is one of the most important aspects which are being discussed in this paper (UNESCO, 2013).

For rural transformation we first need to do detailed and extensive surveys to find out the area which requires transformation at the most and require attention immediately. For the surveys, students from Education, Psychology, Social work and other related branches can be chosen for the purpose of surveys and then some intervention through out the country can be done as part of their dissertation and PhD research work. Students can be sent to different regions for surveying and on the basis of results of the survey intervention plan can be prepared which the student with the help of some NGOs or organisation can implement as part of their PhD thesis e.g., Adult education, Training programmes for rural teachers etc.

On the basis of the results of the survey we can take some preliminary steps for Education for Rural Transformation (ERT).

Rural transformation requires three very important aspects that are:

Key approaches of Education for Rural Transformation

- Heavy investments are needed for inclusive, sustainable and diversified rural development to occur;
- Need for the right governance systems, institutions; and
- Policy processes and improving the efficiency and effectiveness of public policy and programmes. However these things require time and huge funds and we require immediate action i.e., some preliminary steps; so that when we fulfil the above three important requirements at that time we will be well prepared to use our resources as our planning for Rural transformation is already done. The initial steps for ERT that can be taken are:

Same curriculum throughout the country

Same syllabus, same subject contents, same exam pattern and almost same teaching style throughout the country. The curriculum time table should also be same. Curriculum time table means monthly syllabus to be taught in one month should be the same in all the states and in all the schools. The reason is, in midsession if a student want to shift from rural to urban school then the student will not have any problem related to studies. The child can adjust well with the curriculum.

Different boards of education should have same curriculum and should follow the same pattern of questions, date and time of exam. The question paper should be prepared by Central examination body and distributed equally. They can have different sets of paper for different regions. This should be done only for convenience sake.

Exchange of students and teachers

Teachers who are posted in urban areas, atleast for few months/years they should be posted to rural areas in order to teach the students of rural areas in the same manner which they follow in urban areas. Same process can be followed by sending rural students to urban schools in order to learn the course content so that they can reach the level of students of urban areas. Similar kind of exchange programme can be done for foreign countries also.

Grade examination at every level

There should be uniform grade of examination at primary, junior secondary, senior secondary and higher secondary levels. This will give an idea to the students of rural areas, the standard of urban areas and accordingly they can improve themselves with the help their teachers.

By doing grade examination students of both areas will prepare for common syllabus, this will create equality in rural and urban standards or we can say that this will decrease the curriculum gap between the rural and urban areas.

Technical and vocational education

Teachers - Educational/vocational training can be provided to teacher to gain professional skills and since it will be a National or International training programme every year or every six months, it will help in developing common skills in all teachers. The training programme will be organised by school or University concerned or a governing education body.

Underprivileged Children – Technical and vocational education and training can be provided to underprivileged students of rural areas. The training can be given in urban as well as rural areas. Places where technical and vocational educations are not available for that urban technical education/vocational institutes should be empowered to establish such educational and vocational institution in rural areas. This will also stop migration of rural students to urban areas and they will be self sufficient at their village level.

Non – campus distance education

People who want to study but because of some reason like financial crisis, distance, job etc they are not able to join regular classes can get enrolled themselves for such education programmes and can learn staying at home.

Non campus distance programme for those also whose syllabus is different from other universities and after completion of graduation they want to join other university. So they can parallel study the course which other universities are teaching while studying the current syllabus of their own university. This will help the student to adjust better when he/she join the university which he /she wished to join.

Stop Migration

Individuals rationally decide to migrate because they are attracted by the bright lights of the city which promise, in the long – term, to offer better economic opportunities than the countryside. The structuralist approach to migration, on the other hand, tends to portray migrants as victims rather than rational decision makers, since movement is determined by macro social, historical and dialectic processes such as the socio – spatial restructuring of production at the national and global levels. Push – pull factors are seen as a process of polarization with respect to access to resources, and migration as one of the new options available to the most vulnerable population strata.

Gender and generation also play a crucial role in migration, decision – making and selectivity (Chant, 1992). For example, women (either mothers or daughters) are more likely to feel responsible for the wellbeing of other house hold members than their male counterparts and this may be an important factor in migration decisions especially when women's employment opportunities in home environments are limited. Migrations can also provide an escape from social and family constraints and give women a level of independence they may not easily have access to in their home areas (Tacoli, 1998). Young men with restricted access to family land

Key approaches of Education for Rural Transformation

waged work may also decide to move. While in all cases the impacts on areas of out – migration may be significant (in terms, for example, of labour availability, remittances, household organisations and agricultural production systems), they are also likely to vary depending on who moves and who stays. To stop such migrations from rural to urban areas we can start giving non – agricultural educational and vocational training to people of rural areas due to which they can start their own business in their village only. Non – agricultural rural activities include non – farm activities, which are carried out in the farm but are not related to crop production (such as furniture and brick making or beer – brewing, which are sold in both rural and urban markets) and off – farm activities, which are carried out away from the farm, and thus involve a special dimension, often revolving around urban centres. (Tacoli, 1998). To stop migration this adult education is necessary.

ADULT EDUCATION

From the beginning of five year plans, the Government of India gave importance to Adult education. It has been launched a country – wide programme of adult literacy drive as a part of social education in 1950 under the Community development programme. Its success was limited because of many socio – economic reasons. There was less motivation for adults towards the programme and local resources and voluntary organisations did not involved fully.

For this first the NGOs or the organisations involved in the Adult Education plan must be feel enthusiastic for their work and Education counsellors should provide a motivational incentives whenever required to the adult people, so that their level of motivation do not go down. For example, Person with good performance will get job or will get vocational training or can work as supervisor etc in the industry established in village.

Dropouts from primary schools

There is a large rate of drop – outs from primary schools even in States where primary education is free and supposedly compulsory. The root problem is the mass poverty in rural areas. In that situation a child becomes a helper in economic activities from young age. Tending to cattle, fetching firewood or water and helping parents in their field work are commonly seen in rural households.

For this NGOs and Government can give scholarship to those, whose children are coming regularly and scoring good marks in exams. This will motivate the parents to send their children to schools and also there will be some financial help.

Gender differences

The literacy gap between males and females should be reduced so that there will be a sense of equality in terms of education in society.

Key approaches of Education for Rural Transformation

A study conducted by the Centre Science and Environment (CSE), Delhi in Himalayan village in Chamoli, UP unfolds that women spend 59%, children 36% and men 15 % work hours every year confirming back breaking work load on rural womenfolk. These are perhaps the alarming indicators about the Indian rural women, whose work is filled with drudgery and hardship – leading to feminization of poverty, thus, in real sense excluding them from full participation in development efforts to eliminate poverty. Though rural women produce upto 80% of food in the developing countries, yet, studies include they have little to only a fraction of farm land, and access to just 10% of credit and 5% of extension advice. (S.K. Agrawal, 2005)

For this women from villages should be given educational and vocational training. Also they will be given job opportunity in their village so that they can take care of their family, children and can earn money too. For example, small scale business, dairy products, handicrafts etc. They can also become the broker or the agent who can help their village women to sell their products to different parts of the world so that they will get money for their hard work.

Incentives to the farmers

Make a Policy which says that, those who will complete their formal education or those who have done their matriculation and cleared the exam will get some % reduction in their loans or will get seeds and fertilizers at much subsidised rates.

Those whose children are studying technical or vocational or teaching field and working for the development of village they will get seeds and fertilizers free of cost or at very subsidized rates etc.

Agricultural Education

Greater stress has to be given on the Agricultural colleges to bring about an integrated approach to education, research and extension. Provide training to the farmers. Demonstrate and train farmers about the improved agricultural facilities and organise village cooperatives and Panchayats. The programme will include Cattle development, High Yielding Varieties programmes, Agro – area etc. Young students must be trained about the importance of land and the rivers, flora and fauna of the countryside.

Though there are 73 Agricultural colleges with annual admission strength of about 10,000 as compared to 18 Agricultural colleges with strength of about 1,000 in 1951. 8 Agricultural Engineering colleges have been set – up in different parts of the country with a total annual admission strength of about 250 students. There are Veterinary colleges, Fisheries Colleges, rural oriented Home Science Colleges and Forest Colleges. But for higher economic returns from agriculture, technical educational programme is essential. We need to restructure our educational curricula and course to meet these basic requirements of the country. We need to increase the number of such colleges and number of seats so that more number of students can be benefitted from these colleges. Also for this we need to motivate farmers and their children to

Key approaches of Education for Rural Transformation

get enrolled in such educational / vocational programmes as they are the future of our Country's Rural Transformation.

Colleges in rural areas can have reservation for only rural students. They will be given job opportunity to work in the rural areas, so that they have interest in developing their own village. Infrastructure and funding can be provided by State government and Private agencies. The main focus of these colleges will be research and development in the field of agriculture e.g., preparing good and healthy seeds, organic fertilizers and manures etc.

USE OF TECHNOLOGIES

Training for how to use computers and internet – There are so many areas within India where internet connection and computers are available but people do not know how to use these technologies. Training must be provided to people living in rural areas so that they can utilize internet and computers for the purpose of learning and also for doing work related to their job or business. For example, Sending designs of handloom sarees to designers and buyers located in different parts of the world, to learn different ways of domestic animal farming with the help of translated version of videos available on internet, Seed technology, Biotechnology etc. For this purpose; if the people are not comfortable with the language, then a person from the village can be chosen who knows English language better and that person can explain these techniques in their local language. For this the person will be paid by NGO or State government.

E – Resource facilities – Electronic books, journals, articles, and magazines should be available on internet in different languages so that the areas where there is no library or no source of information, the people of that area can surf internet to get information.

Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) – ICT facilities can be used for rural transformation. Same syllabus, same subject, same content can be accessed by everybody including children and teachers so that the pattern of education can be maintained and if students want to come to the urban areas; they will be already aware with contents of the subject. For this, syllabus will be displayed on internet; the contents will be prepared and explained in detail in a particular format by different Professors and Teachers of Universities and Schools.

Also the content will be in three languages; English, Hindi and local language so that it will be accessible by all.

The clever deployment of ICT for creating connectivity in thousands of colleges and hundreds of universities is therefore not a luxury but a necessity. This would bring in free flow of information, which would give access to various good elements of teaching and learning at places of eminence, which would enhance the academic ambience at far places across the country. Much more than that, it would expose vast number of youths in rural, semi – urban and urban areas to best teachers and best of academic infrastructure in India and abroad. This is not only cost effective approach but would reduce migration of students to cosmopolitan cities. This

Key approaches of Education for Rural Transformation

would also have impact on research in universities. The information and communication connectivity would help to propagate concept of digital repository of research material thus making it possible to have an access to wider breadth of 'knowledge' at low cost (Sharma, 2006).

ICTs can work as a useful tool of learning and expression. The common problem is expanding access to ICTs and developing their use to enhance basic education. The Dakar framework for Action articulates the dilemma that their increasing use 'may tend to increase disparities, weaken social bonds and threaten cultural cohesion'. This dilemma applies also to the promotion of literacy and context – sensitive Education for Sustainable Development, and includes the question of how use ICTs relates to traditional learning tools (paper and pen, chalk and talk, for example). This is an area where common cause should be made by advocating strongly for local input into how ICTs should be used.

To resolve this issue we can in advance make sure that the all contents are explained by the teachers before students can surf the net and get information. Also ICT contents can be explained by the teachers using Chalk – Talk – Interaction. Teachers can motivate students to give more examples related to the content and to prepare street plays, flash cards, skits and many other things based on the contents of ICTs which will be the part of their examination procedure. Also there will be paper – pen exams which will be subjective in nature and students have to write answers in detailed based on what they have studied as part of their syllabus throughout the year.

Health Education

The issues of development, environment and health are closely entwined, reflecting the complex links between the social, economic, ecological and political factors that determine standards of living and other aspects of social well – being that influence human health. A healthy population and safe environments are important pre – conditions for sustainable development. However, the education of many children and young people around the world is compromised by conditions and behaviours that undermine the physical and emotional well – being that makes learning possible. Hunger, malnutrition, malaria, polio and intestinal infections, drug and alcohol abuse, violence and injury, unplanned pregnancy, HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted infections are just some of the problems that have enormous implications for health. Health education activities should be organized at different parts of the States where people are not aware of their health conditions and causes of it. This can be done by Health practitioners, Psychologists, Social workers, AIDS counsellors etc.

Physical education

For better health and for better well – being physical education is very important. For this course is being run in 7 Universities and 22 colleges spread over 13 states in the country, where UGC is providing assistance to these institutions for approved items of expenditure like salary of the

Key approaches of Education for Rural Transformation

staff, books and journals, equipment and laboratory building. But there are still many activities that can be done to provide physical education.

In many parts of the country people have capability and skills to show good performance related to any kind of sports like tracking (desert, Forest), Cycle Safari on plain, Mountainous terrain /rocky terrain, water sports, skiing, malkham, boxing etc. Such extra ordinary people must get proper training and must get proper motivation so that they can prepare themselves for National and International game, tournaments and can make country, their parents and their village proud. For this they must get proper Boarding and Lodging, Honorarium, TA/DA, Equipments etc. This will not only promote Indian games but also help people to shine and earn money.

Human Rights Education

Most of people are not aware of their rights whether the individual is from urban or rural areas. Human rights education should be provided by social workers, students of law, teachers etc so that people who are not aware of their rights can use their rights to progress and to stand confidently on their feet to achieve their goals without being cheated.

Internships

Internship can be introduced as part of curriculum of the B.Ed and M.Ed students. As part of B.Ed and M.Ed internship students can be sent to Municipality schools or the schools having poor academic performance, for teaching and educating the children. At the end of the year based on the school children's performance grades can be given to B.Ed, M.Ed students. This will serve two purposes: improvement in teaching style of Municipality school and Training of B.Ed, M.Ed students to deal with worst teaching systems and how to improve it.

Children University

In Gujarat the first Children University of India has opened recently. The motto of this University is diverse yet much focused. It will work in the field of research, education and training, and some extensive services. The university with the help of trained and experienced teachers, consultants they will provide education and training to the students of B.Ed and M.Ed. Then these trained students will provide training to other teachers located in different rural and urban areas. The training and education will also be provided to special/disabled children. Education related to health, vocational, physical etc will also be provided. Also trained psychologists will help in diagnosing children with difficulty in learning and based on that proper intervention plan will be prepared to help those children.

We should encourage such University to grow and spread its network not only in Gujarat but also in different parts of the country where transformation is required urgently and needs more attention. We can get associated with the Children University and help them reach to achieve their goals. This will help in better and much faster rural transformation.

Assessment

Time to time assessment should be done to find out whether the planned strategy is working effectively or not. For this a governing body can be made who will do this assessment part every 6 months or 1 year. Also psychological assessment should be done by a team of psychologist in order to find out, if there is any difference in Quality of life and well – being of people or not. This will help in deciding whether the strategies are working properly or not. Time to time psychological assessment will also help in finding the motivational level of the governing body and the rural people so that; if there is any problem proper intervention can be given to both members of the governing body and rural people. This will help in maintaining the motivational level of the system and goal achievement.

Role of Media

Media can play a very important role in Education for rural transformation by making people aware of different policies, their rights, and importance of education. If this awareness is spread like a fire then education for rural transformation will become much easier that we cannot think of.

Unity

The above mentioned points can only be achieved if all of us understand our responsibilities and duties. It's our responsibility and duty to teach others. It does not matter from which discipline we belong. Anyone can help in Education for rural transformation and ultimately the rural transformation. Whether we are from education, law, psychology, social work, health, medicine, political science etc we all can give our favours to the society to improve it. And for this we have to work together as a team.

CONCLUSION

Education for Rural Transformation is very important. Though funds, right governance, efficiency and effectiveness of policies are very important but still as an educator, psychologist and social worker, we can do many things for rural transformation. If these key approaches like educational/vocational training, information about and use of latest technologies, physical, health education etc are being followed and provided effectively then we can achieve our goal that is Rural Transformation.

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Modernization and Social Change among Adolescence

Trupti Ambalal Chandalia¹

ABSTRACT:

The main purpose of this research was to find out the mean difference between modernization and social change of rural and urban Adolescence. The total 480 sample were taken, out of 480 sample 240 were rural Adolescence & 240 urban adolescence were taken from Rajkot and Junagadh District. The research tool for comprehensive modernization, Prof. S. P. Ahluwalia & Dr. Ashok Kalia comprehensive modernization inventory (1985) was used for social change, Dr. Rama Tiwari, Agra, Miss Romapal and Miss Radha Pandey's social change inventory used. Here Gujarati Adaption used t-test was applied to check the difference of modernization and social change. Check relation Karl-person 'r' method used. Result reveals that significant difference in Modernization and social change with respect both rural and urban adolescence. While the correlation between modernization and social change reveals positive significant difference. that means modernization are more so social change are more.

Keywords: *Modernization, Social Change and Adolescent*

Human society has changed much over the last centuries and this process of Modernization has profoundly affected our lives. Modernization is the process of changing the conditions of a society. Today we live in a modern age where we want to get things easily done change is the law of nature and this change is evident in each and every sphere of man's life. This change is so fast varietal and spontaneous as our priorities, aims, goals of life are changing and directed towards the world of competition. The fast developing technology rich information system and the vast expansion of knowledge has brought and the corresponding changes in the lives of the people the change in the society is possible through modernization, which include besides technological advancement, change in thinking beliefs and customs etc.

From the beginning of life till now life has been changing. Change is the law of nature, and changes in society are always taking place. At times there changes are slow. Sometime they are so slow that people do not even perceive them. However, there are times when they are also rapid and drastic. All spheres of living things are changing. The word modernization is derived from Latin word 'mound' means Modern. Modernization as a form of cultural response attributes which are basically universalistic and evolutionary.

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Modernization and Social Change among Adolescence

Modernization is generally regarded as a process of change. Change of traditional society into a society based on science and technology modernization can best be defined as the process of transforming the old traditional society and nations to the modernity in the fields of social, political, cultural and educational advancement.

Modernization mean the appearance of 'Modes' of social life of organization which emerged in Europe from about the seventeenth century on words and which subsequently became more or less worldwide in their influence (Giddens, 1991) modernization theory states that the economy. Social condition and culture values of a society are to large extent structurally and functionally linked and change relatively predictable ways (Rostow-1971).

OBJECTIVES:

The main objectives of this study are as under:

1. To study the modernization and social change of the rural & urban Adolescence.
2. To study the relationship between the modernization and social change of the rural & urban Adolescence.

HYPOTHESIS:

Two related objectives of this study hypothesis were us under.

- H1. There is no significant difference in the mean scores of the modernization among rural & urban Adolescence.
- H2 "There is no significant difference in the mean scores of social change among rural and urban adolescence.
- H3 There is no correlation between the modernization and social change of the Adolescence.

Samples:

According to the purpose of present study a total of 480 samples has been selected. There were 240 rural Adolescence and 240 urban Adolescence taken as a sample (who were taken from Rajkot District, Gujarat, India)

Tools:

1. Comprehensive modernization inventory (Prof. S. P. Ahluwalia + Dr. Ashok Kalia-1985).
2. Social change Inventory (Dr. Rama Tiwari – Agra, Miss Roma Pala + Miss RadhaPandey)

RESULT AND DISCUSSION:

The main objective of present study was to a study of modernization and social change in rural & urban Adolescence.

H1. “There is no significant difference in the mean scores of the modernization among rural & urban Adolescence.”

Table-1, Showing the Mean, S.D. and ‘t’ Value of the Modernization

Sample Group	N	Mean	S.D.	t	Level of Sig.
Rural	240	102.42	12.59	2.74	0.01
Urban	240	105.08	8.38		

As visible from the above table, the mean and S.D. of rural adolescence is 102.42 & 12.59 while that of the urban adolescence is 105.08 & 8.38 respectively. The t-ratio is 2.74 which is significant at 0.01 level of confidence. Therefore the hypothesis 1 is rejected.

As the mean score of urban area adolescence is higher than that of rural area adolescence therefore, it may be said that urban area adolescence has significantly higher level of modernization than their rural area adolescence. The result of present study of supported by Patel (1979) & B. Gahu (2006) & H. Patel (2012).

H2 “There is no significant difference in the mean scores of social change among rural and urban adolescence.

Table-2, Showing the Mean, S.D. and ‘t’ Value of Social change

Sample Group	N	Mean	S.D.	t	Level of Sig.
Rural	240	126.12	14.70	3.28	0.01
Urban	240	130.64	15.67		

As visible from the above table, the mean and S.D. of rural adolescence is 126.12 & 14.70 while that of the urban adolescence is 130.64 & 15.67 respectively. The t-ratio is 3.28 which is significant at 0.01 level of confidence. Therefore the hypothesis 2 is rejected.

As the mean score of urban area adolescence is higher than of rural area adolescence therefore, it may be said those urban areas have significantly higher level of social change than their rural area counterpart. The result of present study is supported by B. Gahu (2006).

H3 There exists no correlation between the modernization and social change of the Adolescence.

Table-3, Showing the Mean, S.D. and ‘t’ Value of the Modernization

Variables	N	r
Modernization	480	0.45
Social Change	480	

Modernization and Social Change among Adolescence

The table-3 showing the correlation between the modernization and social change of the Adolescence is 'r' value = 0.45, is positive, it means the hypothesis is rejected as there is positive correlation between the modernization and social change of the adolescence.

CONCLUSION:

We can conclude by Data analysis as follows:

There was significant difference of the rural and urban adolescence on the modernization and social change. And there is a significant correlation between modernization and social change among adolescents.

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Social Adjustment of College Students in Relation to Gender

Shruti A. Suthar¹

ABSTRACT:

The present investigation is to find out the difference in the social adjustment of college students with regard to their gender. The total random sample consisted 100 (50 Male and 50 Female) college students belonged from various colleges of Mehsana city. '**Social Adjustment Inventory**' developed by R. C. Deva (1990) was administered as a tool for the study. The obtained data were analyzed by using 't'-Test. The result shows that there is no significant mean difference in Social Maturity and Social Adjustment of male and female college students. There is significant mean difference in Emotional Adjustment of the college students in relation to their gender.

Keywords: Social Adjustment

The problem of adjustment being faced by our adolescents, needs serious consideration. It has been rightly estimated that 18th century was characterized by enlightenment, the 19th century by progress and development where as the 20th century is characterized by anxiety and conflict. The mechanical and busy life has exposed affecting their adjustive capacity. The term 'adjustment' used several times without clarifying its exact meaning. The concept of adjustment was originally borrowed from biology. It was modeled after the biological term 'adaptation', which refers to effect by a species to adjust to change in its environment. Thus adjustment refers to the psychological processes through which people manage or cope with the demands and challenges of everyday life.

SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT :

"Social Adjustment may take place by adapting the self to the environment or by changing the environment." - **Campbell, Psychiatric Dictionary (1996).**

As far as previous study are concerned **The National Center For Educational Statistic** found that approximately one third of entering college students leave higher education without obtaining degree, and most do so during their 1st year (Bradburn & Carroll, 2002) Previous studies have suggested that relationships and making meaningful connections are important for students to adjust to the college environment (Rice, Fitz Gerald, Whaley & Gibbs, 1995).

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Social Adjustment of College Students in Relation to Gender

Social Adjustment may be just as important as academic adjustment according to Gender. Mallinckrodt (1994) who studied 155 freshmen and found that "Personal Adjustment and integration into the social fabric of campus life play a role at least as important as academic factors in students relation." Numerous studies conducted in the 1990s indicated that students needs continued support to become involved in activities and that this improves their overall adjustment (Dinger, 1999).

Problem of the study

The problem of the present study is as under :

"Social Adjustment of college students in relation to gender."

OBJECTIVE

The objective of present study is as under :

- (1) The purpose of present study is to measure Social Maturity of male and female college students.
- (2) The purpose of present study is to measure Emotional Adjustment of male and female college students
- (3) The purpose of present study is to measure Social Adjustment of male and female college students

HYPOTHESIS

- (1) There is no significant mean difference between male and female college students in Social Maturity.
- (1) There is no significant mean difference between male and female college students in Emotional Adjustment.
- (2) There is no significant mean difference between male and female college students in Social Adjustment.

Variables of the study :

Following variables were selected for the present study :

(1) Independent Variable :

Male and Female college students who belong to various colleges of Mehsana city.

(2) Dependent Variable :

Score of Social Adjustment Scale.

METHOD :

Survey method was chosen for data collection, Social Adjustment Inventory developed by R.C.Deva(1990) was administered to college students who belong to various colleges of Mehsana city.

(1) Selection of the sample :

The total random sample of present study consisted 100 college students (50 Male and 50 Female) from different colleges of Mehsana city situated in North Gujarat.

(2) Tool :

"Social Adjustment Inventory" developed by R.C.Deva(1990) was used to differences between male and female college student's Social Adjustment. Total 100 statements were given to answer. High score is to be interpreted as good Social Adjustment and low score as poor Social Adjustment.

(3) Procedure :

After establishing rapport with college students "Social Adjustment Inventory" was administered. All the instructions were strictly followed which were given in the manual of inventory.

(4) Data Analysis :

SPSS for windows was used for descriptive statistics as under :

- (1) Mean
- (2) Standard Deviation (SD)
- (3)'t'- Value.

RESULT & DISCUSSION

The obtained results are shown in the following tables.

Table No. 1 - Social Maturity of Male and Female college students.

No.	Group	N	Mean	SD	df	't'-Value	Level of Significant
1	Male	50	91.01	33.6	98	0.21	NS*
2	Female	50	92.06	38.11			NS*

**Insignificant at 0.01 and 0.05 level.*

Social Adjustment of College Students in Relation to Gender

As above mentioned Table No.1 shows that there is no significant mean difference between male and female college students in Social Maturity. The result is no significant so null hypothesis is accepted. The mean difference shows that there is little difference between Male(91.01) and Female(92.06) college students.

Table No. 2 - Emotional Adjustment of Male and Female college students.

No.	Group	N	Mean	SD	df	't'- Value	Level of Significant
1	Male	50	34.85	14.36	98	5.6	Sig*
2	Female	50	49.24	24.46			Sig*

**Significant at 0.01 and 0.05 level.*

As above mentioned Table No. 2 shows that there is significant mean difference between male and female college students in Emotional Adjustment. The result is significant so null hypothesis is not accepted.

Table No. 3 - Social Adjustment of Male and Female college students.

No.	Group	N	Mean	SD	df	't'- Value	Level of Significant
1	Male	50	42.21	20.38	98	0.31	NS*
2	Female	50	43.56	16.55			NS*

**Insignificant at 0.01 and 0.05 level.*

As above mentioned Table No.-3 shows that there is no significant mean difference between male and female college students in Social Adjustment. The result is no significant so null hypothesis is accepted. The mean difference shows that there is little difference between Male (42.21) and Female (43.56) college students.

CONCLUSION

We can draw conclusion this present study as under :

- (1) There is no significant mean difference between male and female college students in Social Maturity.
- (2) There is no significant mean difference between male and female college students in Emotional Adjustment.
- (3) There is no significant mean difference between male and female college students in Social Adjustment.

SUGGESTION

- (1) This study is limited for only 100 college students, I suggest that large sample should be taken for further study.

Social Adjustment of College Students in Relation to Gender

- (1) This study is confined to the only for college students.
- (2) This study is only limited for Mehsana city, I suggest that the variable of rural and urban should be taken for the further study.

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GAME: General Aggression Model in Education

Dr. Tanu Tandon¹

ABSTRACT:

Women in India have been victim of violence and discrimination since ages but this aggression has also led to empowerment of women in some cases. This study deals with study of such aggressive women who transformed their aggression to empowerment. Grounded theory methodology has been used to explore and understand the process and role of education in transformation. This study focuses on route aggression takes and role of education in channelizing the aggressive energy so as to lead to empowerment.

General Aggression Model (GAM) given by Anderson and Bushman (2002) is a dynamic, social, cognitive developmental model which draws heavily on social-cognitive and social learning theories. Aggression depends on how an individual perceives and interprets his/her environment and people there in, this model has been revised and a new model has been devised namely General Aggression Model in Education or GAME, which shows path towards empowerment from aggression.

Keywords: *General Aggression Model, Education*

Status of women in India is sort of a paradox. On one side are examples of women power and on another hand we see women being exploited and used as commodities. Uttar Pradesh and Delhi are the places where crime against women is highest and it's an irony that both had Women chief ministers. These stark opposite examples set me thinking, the same states which have women as victims have given rise to most powerful women. I wondered whether the aggression against injustice and discrimination made women empowered. What has been the role of education in the lives of aggressive empowered women? Has education played any role in attainment of empowerment?

To find answers to my queries, I realized that I have to study the aggressive empowered women closely; in their socio cultural context therefore I adopted Qualitative approach and used Grounded Theory Methodology (GTM) for conducting my research.

I selected seven aggressive empowered women symbolizing 'Strength', 'Passion', 'Courage', 'Determination', 'Daring', 'Compassion' and 'sincerity' and generated data using open ended interviews, conversations, participant observations.

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The data were analyzed using GTM procedures namely, coding, writing memos, forming sub categories and categories. Through numerous codes, fifteen sub categories were formed which gave rise to five categories which formed the core category “Transcending the Aggressive Self to Empowered Self through Education”

Transcending the 'self' has been a journey, an ever going, ever-growing journey of woman from state of helplessness to emancipation. It has been an awakening and enlightening process for the women, under study. Their Journey has been to the 'self', which has taken them inside themselves, to know their desires, wishes and to acknowledge themselves as competent woman. The journey has been also about 'self', to know about their strengths, their rights, status and their place in their social world and society at large. It helped them to analyze their situations and work upon improving them. This journey has also been for the 'self', to change their 'self' for the better, to bring changes in their life and to make their mark in their world and get their voices heard. It has been a well rewarding journey, where in they have not travelled alone, but with their families, society and have tried to stretch their boundaries, reach beyond themselves and have not only empowered themselves but also those around them, achieving emancipation in return.

Their journey from aggression to empowerment started with awareness. Awareness about their own emotions of 'self pity', 'loneliness', 'low self esteem', feelings of being 'un loved' and 'un desired', of acknowledging the discrimination and oppression being inflicted upon them. Being aware of their position and their rights made them more sensitive about the disparity that existed between the two, which built up the aggression in them even more. Understanding of their plight and deprivation made them raise their voices against injustice done to them and demand their rights as woman. Analysis of their circumstances gave them insight about their aggression and causes behind them. This in turn helped these women to look at their aggression objectively and rationally. Women aggression has relational context, various studies have proved, women are more likely to aggress in situation congruent to gender role orientation, such as family settings. In fact, strong evidence of women aggression have been found in intimate relationships and threat to a woman's self concept and self definition causes build up of aggression. Participants of my study, felt the same when they were rejected by their husbands and families, this was a blow to their self esteem and self concept. The response of one of the participant, Promila "I was treated like a Cattle" says much more than her words, it reflects how she was treated and more importantly the effect this treatment had on her, lowering her dignity and giving her a feeling of being 'used', like a non human entity, reducing her to be like an animal, reason enough for being aggressive.

Jack (1991, 1999) has suggested in his studies that most critical factors affecting aggression arousal and expression are in interpersonal context. Fehr and colleagues (1999) surmise that "women's greater propensity to be angered in close relationships, may reflect their greater motivation to achieve intimacy in these relationship, as well as their reported tendency to derive self esteem from close relationships."

A woman's world is her home where as a man has a larger context, in form of social world to prove his authority, therefore woman's self esteem and confidence is closely related to her partner and family, rejection, abuse and subjugation from them, leads her entering into

"learned helplessness cycle", causing her to tolerate more and more abuse, suffering more at the hand of partner and family. These women under study went through the same turmoil and trauma. In an attempt to prove themselves in their relationship, they became submissive, which led to getting trapped in "learned helplessness" cycle.

Submission is also a form of aggression. The suicide attempt by another participant, Pratima, was her aggression only, directed at her own self. In fact expressive aggression is all about losing control to someone else and women have been found higher in this type of aggression. All these women, participants of my study succumbed to expressive aggression at first, in an attempt to save their relationships. For some women it was a shock and social cultural set back to accept a failed relationship. Relevance of women aggression, is towards those with whom they are close, women aggression is driven by need to achieve higher level of attention from their partners especially emotional support.

Jack defined women Aggression as "A type of relatedness, a particular form of interaction, a way of connecting. It is forcefully bringing ones will, desire and voice into relationship to oppose or displace of another for either constrictive or destructive purpose." Attachment theory (Bowlby, 1983) has answer to the issue of women aggression and suggested that secure or insecure attachment relates to subjective well being, and may influence aggressive behaviour in women. Theory also stresses that when proximity and contact are threatened beyond acceptable limits, attachment is reflected in behavioural, emotional and cognitive response. Insecure attachment often results in anger, sadness, guilt dependency and aggressiveness. Bowlby (1983) further suggested that threats to proximity seeking and contacts were often seen as threats of abandonment and can lead to anger, aggression and violence. Aggression stems from a sense of loss or separation from one, with whom attachment is salient. Lack of love, insecurity rejection, threat to relationship evokes aggression and anxiety Thus aggression in these women; resulted from lack of love, abuse they faced in their relationship causing them low self esteem, anxiety, loneliness.

Another reason was the awareness and knowledge of their rights, which these women acquired. This enlightenment, that they also deserve equal status and rights, made them more aggressive. The need to be loved, to be respected within their relationship, families, society and the knowledge about their rights, made them see the gaps in their life more prominently about the kind of life they were leading and the kind of life they should be leading. This raised many questions in their minds and aroused them to revolt against injustice done to them. A stand supported by Researchers is that, women aggression is now being noticed because women are asking for freedom and equality. Also, as women are attaining power into relationship, the women movement has increased awareness about victimizations in intimate relationships. Women have realized that acceptance and forgiveness are not the only options they have, but also fighting back and defiance. Campbell has analyzed that Men have defined who can be legitimately aggressive and patriarchy has hidden aggression from women's belief in the naturalness to their subordination to men. (Campbell,1993). Feminist theories emphasized the need to understand women aggression in terms of status of women in society, to several, acknowledge and define it from woman's perspective. The power difference between Men and

women along with women's restricted opportunities and resources contributed to an increased likelihood of women aggression in interpersonal relationships. Women aggression is located within interpersonal and institutionalized patterns of patriarchal society.

In order to understand women aggression intricacies of factors have to be understood at both micro and macro level.

Integrative contextual developmental model (White, J.W. & Kowalski, R.W.) about women aggression and violence, illustrates the interaction of various factors responsible for violence against women at all levels. Contextual factors exist at cultural level and reflect the shared pattern of ideas and beliefs that exist across generations. Within this level are societal, community and neighbourhood factors. In turn these socio-cultural factors define features of social network, like family, peer group, employment etc, further embedded in these social networks are characteristics of dyadic relationship, in which violence occurs and includes traits, attitudes and motivation etc.

UNDERSTANDING AGGRESSION

Aggression was used by these women under study as survival strategy. Their aggression is similar to the life energy or 'Eros' as given by Freud in his Psycho-analytical theory or to the Drive theories which explain aggression as drive force, pursuit in each individual. General Aggression Model gives a complete holistic explanation about aggression.

General Aggression Model (GAM) given by Anderson and Bushman (2002) is a dynamic, social, cognitive developmental model which draws heavily on social-cognitive and social learning theories. Aggression depends on how an individual perceives and interprets his/her environment and people there in, expectations regarding likelihood of various outcomes and knowledge and belief about how people respond in a situation. GAM relies on use of knowledge structures for perception, interpretation, decision making and action. Knowledge structure develops from experience influence all types of perception and behaviour patterns and are linked to affective states and beliefs and guide interpretation to social and physical environment. Important thing is that it can become automatic with practice and one can learn the way one thinks and behave. If we look at GAM cycle, it focuses on three aspects.

Input: It consists of two proximate causes. Situational causes are features of present situation that can increase or inhibit aggression like insult, provocation etc. Personal causes include what person brings to current situation for example their attitude beliefs and behavior.

1. **Present Internal state** Input variables influence behavior through the present internal state and these are concerned with cognitive, affect and arousal.
2. **Outcome** The third stage includes several complex appraisal and decision making process ranging from relatively automatic to heavily controlled. Results from inputs enter into the appraisal and decision process through their effects on present internal state. Immediate appraisal is automatized process but reappraisal is controlled process, reappraisal means alternative option has been searched and acted upon and that action may be non aggressive. In sum, aggressive behavior, like any social behavior, is result of proximate convergence of situational and personal factors.

GAME: General Aggression Model in Education

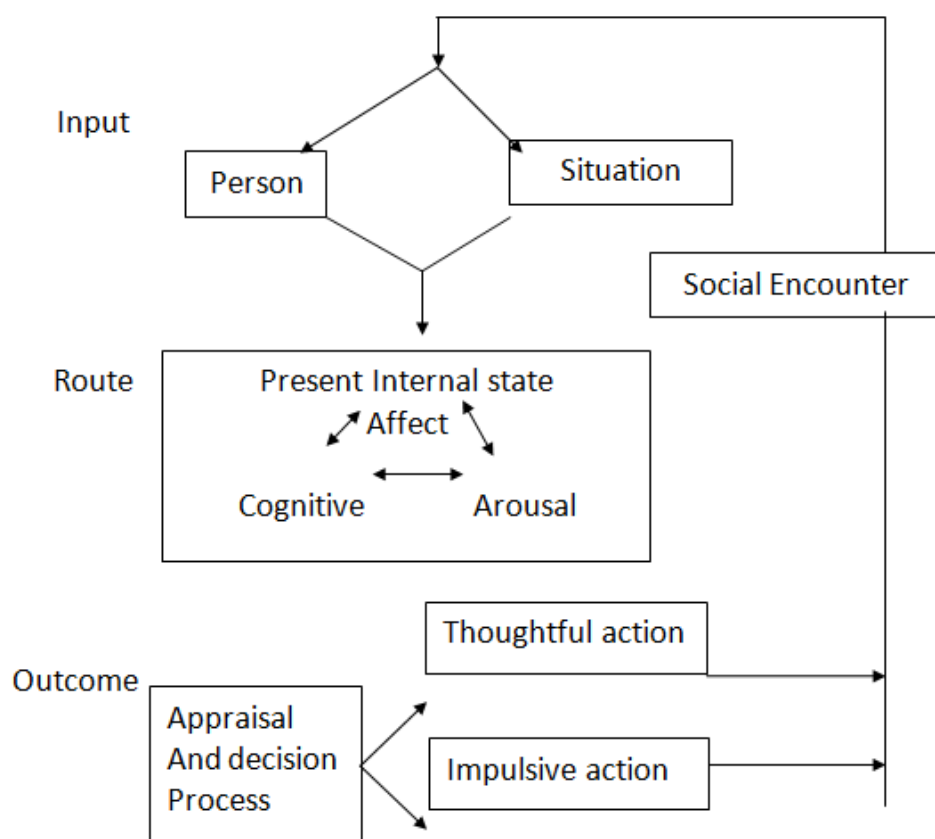


Fig 1.1. GAM Model (Anderson and Bushman, 2002)

This model clearly indicates that the route aggression takes, affects the outcome, whether the action is impulsive or thoughtful one.

Empowerment

Aggression inside women has been their survival strategy and they used their aggression as an instrument to achieve their goal and to gain control over their lives and situation. These women used their aggression to attain freedom, equality and justice, leading them towards empowerment. Empowerment and aggression are two sides of the same coin. Loss of control, helplessness causes aggression and attaining control, power to take decision is empowerment. Empowerment means gaining control over live. These women did the same they challenged and changed their sub ordinate status and lives. Empowerment is a process and implies redistribution of power. Empowerment does not stop here, but becomes emancipator, when it empowers others as well.

Women under study used their aggression as an instrument to attain empowerment, in personal, social and economic sphere and they did not stop at themselves, instead they reached to others and empowered other, They mustered courage to change their situation realized their strengths and decided to improve their status and position. They did not succumb to the discrimination; they derived their strengths out of it and chose to fight back. They passed through

phases of self doubts and helplessness and sought support from their families and society, what made these women empowered was then thirst and willingness to learn and overcome obstacles. Women had restlessness to break the shackles and chains of subjugation and oppression and to live life in their own terms. They refused to accept the atrocities silently and raised their voices against it. In pursuit to find freedom, they found, rather devised ways to achieve economic independence, whether that meant learning new skills or starting their own business. Economic independence along with positive attitude towards their work and optimism brought success, which in turn helped in breaking the learned helplessness cycle. They emerged out of their self made cocoon of self pity and slowly they become confident and their self esteem was raised. Support from their family, society, meeting with likeminded people, participation in community development made them socially empowered as well. They reached to people around them, who needed help and assisted them, supported them by way of providing guidance, work, emotional support, empowering them in process. Their empowered status improved their relationships with their children, partner and families and also resulted in breaking old abusive and traumatic relationships and forming new relationships. As Naila Kabeer (1999) has said "Empowerment refers to the process by which those who have been denied the ability to make strategic life choices acquire such a ability". Strategic life choices are those, which are critical for people to live their lives. These aggressive women made their choices to end the abuse and start their life afresh. Empowerment is context-specific and relative concept therefore depends on woman's background, here circumstances and her expectations and goals. It can't be measured with one single parameter, as it varies from individual to individual, and for these women also, empowerment has different meanings and colours but these colours were filled in the canvas of their life by the brush of education.

Education: Tool to achieve empowerment.

Journey of women from aggression to empowerment had been long and ranging from one continuum to another. Their education helped them to transform their aggression to empowerment, a closer look at their lives reveal that their situation has been similar to many women, who succumbed to oppression but what made these women stand apart was their education.

Formal education or education acquired through informal and non formal means, like from religious books or from people around them, from mass media, spanning over a period of time. Whether it was kalpana, who derived strength from religious books or Promila who learned new skills, or Maya, whose dance was her strength, education and learning played important role in their lives, influencing them at deeper level and transforming their beliefs, thoughts and attitudes.

Education affected the route their aggression took which made all the difference. If we reflect on GAM, we realize that route aggression takes, is affected by cognition and affect which in turn affects the outcome. Situational factors may not be under control completely but the way, these women chose to act upon it, changed their status from being powerless to empowered. If they would have acted impulsively their aggression would have come out in hostile and reactive manner leading to destruction, but they chose the thoughtful action and utilized their aggression as an instrument to achieve their goals, the same aggression, which was aroused due to their

unfavourable conditions become their tool to end the same unfavourable conditions. Instrumental aggression is like operant conditioning, where goal is important and is the reward. Instead of fighting violently these women made their situation favourable to gain advantage over their aggression and to improve their life, but they could do so only because of their education. Their education guided them towards this transformation. It made them aware of their strengths and weaknesses, made them sensitive towards their situation problems, knowledge about their rights, understanding of the disparities made them work towards bridging the gap and bringing the change. Their education gave them the ability to think logically, and rationally. Instead of wasting their energy, they utilized their aggressive energy purposely and systematically. After weighing pros and cons they took the actions and this wisdom and decision making ability could develop into them only because of their education. As kalpana said "Education prepares for life".

Education gives the ability to think, acquire knowledge, gain understanding and apply to practical life, to improve life. Education also influences the 'Affective' state, concerned with emotions, which in turn help to acknowledge, accept and use emotion for benefit. Control of emotions and thoughts and their channelization leads to empowerment. The aggressive drive was used by these women as "Self Preservation" drive, as a defence mechanism to attain a free, equal status. Outcome of their aggression, when passed through the route controlled by education, was of "reappraisal", 'Conscious choice' and 'thoughtful action'. Women moved up in the need hierarchy as described by Maslow in his "Theory of self Actualization" there by achieving high self esteem, and striving for highest need of 'self actualization', it was their education which helped them push beyond physiological and safety needs. They satisfied these primary needs, came out of their self imposed doubts, boundaries and limits and reached out to achieve higher self esteem and strived for perfection and achieving their maximum potential, by helping others they touched the self actualization paradigm, attaining emancipation. Jack (1999) has rightly said that when women use their aggression consciously and constructively for their self protection and bringing aggression positively and constructively into relationship, it results into feeling of well being, self regard and empowerment.

All I can say is that transformation of aggression to empowerment has been possible because their journey passed through channel of education, bringing changes at Cognitive, Affective and Psychomotor levels.

As discussed earlier, the social behaviours can be automatized, therefore use of thoughtful process and proactive behaviour to elicit responses for a situation can be learned and automatized, making it a natural behaviour pattern. This proactive behaviour can make aggression a positive trait, which can bring empowerment and since it's a social behaviour, it can be learned, and made a natural behaviour. Education has the ability to change the negative, destructive pursuits of aggression into positive and constructive pursuits, making it an instrument to achieve success, and this constructive aggressive behaviour can become a natural behaviour through practice.

Here I would propose an improved model of GAM by adding Education in the route, **General Aggression Model in Education or GAME.**

GAME: Implications of the study

GAME: General Aggression Model in Education

Education affects the way a person perceives, understands and analyzes the situation, becomes sensitive towards it and acts after weighing pros and cons' in thoughtful manner. Once this process becomes a habit, it can change the personality of an individual and he/she starts acting in pro-active manner every time adverse situation arises, there by using the situation to his/her advantage. This action can become natural through practice. If these behaviour patterns can be learned at the school level, through formal education then they can help solve the problem of violence prevalent today in society. Children, who are our future, can be taught to use their aggression constructively not only to empower themselves but also to empower society, building more peaceful and empowered society at large.

The route aggression takes can be modified through education at an early stage before it reaches the output level, transforming it into constructive behaviour and slowly incorporating changes at the input level itself. This information can be helpful for the educationists to incorporate changes at various levels. Curriculum can be made to include aspects which can influence behavior, teaching methods and practices can be altered and adopted accordingly and so can be the evaluation practices. This theory of GAME has Implication in every aspect of Education, extending beyond formal territories, reaching to non formal and informal Education.

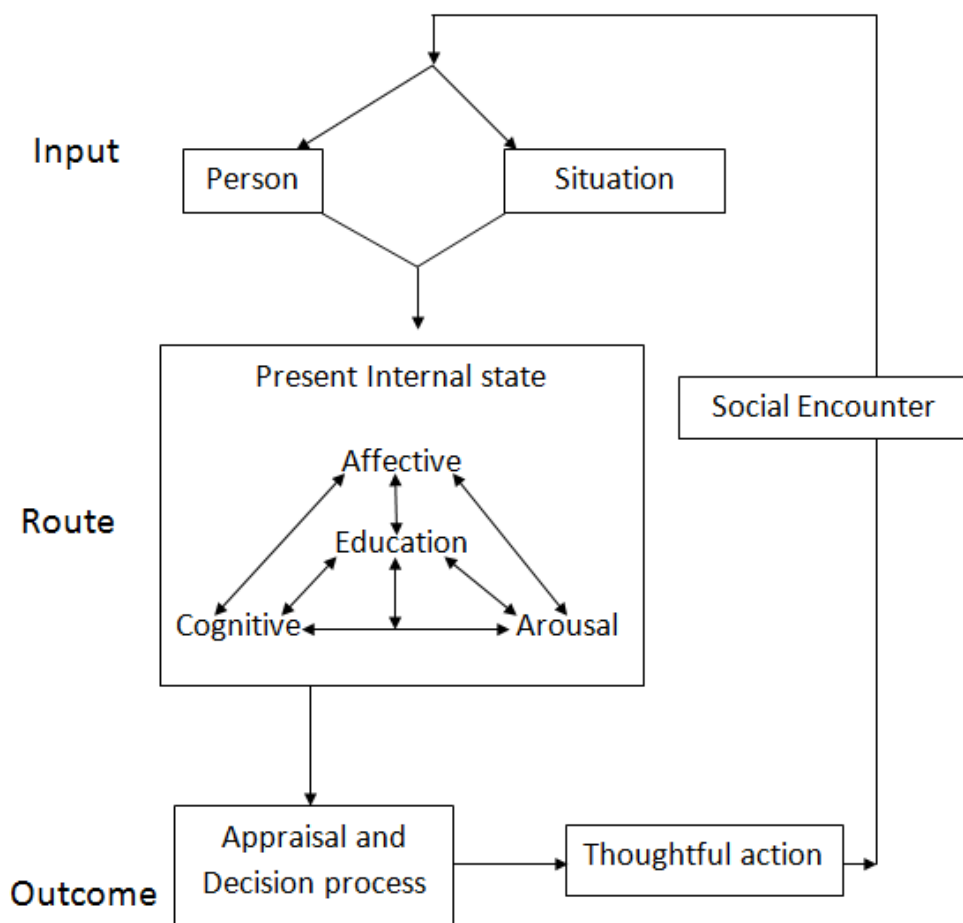


Fig 1.2 GAME: General Aggression Model In Education

GAME: General Aggression Model in Education

The Theory of GAME can be used by Educationists to bring changes in various aspects of Education

- Curriculum Makers can use this to build a curriculum which has subjects which can change the thinking and behavior patterns. Researchers can conduct a study on building such curriculum at different levels, Primary, Secondary and at higher level of Education.
- GAME can be used in Non formal education also which has a larger reach and influence on people. Researchers can conduct study to build programs which can incorporate these findings.
- Teaching methods and practices can be modified accordingly. Researchers can select or construct methods which can help in modifying the route aggression takes, turning it to constructive path.
- Evaluation Techniques can be changed which can help in bringing changes at output level of aggression. Studies can be conducted in this area also, leading to formulation of new practices of evaluation.

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Conflict Management Styles of Female Androgynous Supervisor and Subordinate

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ABSTRACT:

The recent trends and challenges have brought dramatic changes in terms of creating virtual workplaces for both men and women. The present study aims to investigate feminine androgynous supervisors and subordinates who belong to rural and urban area and their differences in conflict management styles in work setting, research was conducted on the differences between status, residential area and preferred conflict management strategies. Identify the differences between androgynous female supervisor and subordinates and their adopted to resolve interpersonal conflict. The sample consisted of 220 Organizational androgynous female employees selected randomly from various branches of Rajkot districts. The Bem's Sex Role Orientation (BSRO) inventory adapted in Indian setting by Rao, Gupta and Murthy was used to measure gender role. Rahim's Organization Conflict Inventory (ROCI-II) was used to measure Conflict management style. The study reflects that significant effect between supervisor and subordinates conflict management styles and there was significant interactional effect of status and residential area.

Keywords: *Organizational status, Residential area, Conflict management styles.*

Conflict is presumed to be present in almost every context of human interaction, which makes the importance of conflict management strategies highly significant. Conflict management strategies vitally increase the performance and effectiveness of an individual and in turn the effectiveness of the organization as a whole. Within this scenario, the main focus is on the human being itself and the manner in which each individual manages conflict.

Significant attention has been received by the group conflict management within the organizations in the academic and nonacademic literature. (Wall & Callister, 1995; Jehn, 1997; Jameson, 1999; Rahim, 2000, 2001, 2002; Pearson, Ensley & Amson, 2002; De Dru & Weingart, 2003). Not only research but also the practitioner's interest in conflict management reflects the fact that conflict is inevitable in organizational and social life (Cosier & Ruble, 1981; Miles, 1980), and researches show that managers spend a major amount of their time dealing with conflict (Pondy, 1992; Pulhamus, 1991; Thomas & Schmidt, 1976).

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Conflict: There are myriad possibilities to define conflict probably as many as there are occasions for it to happen. One set of definitions recommends so as; conflicts present in situations where there are apparent differences in interests, views, or goals. Another such that of Deutsch (1973) implies that for a conflict to be present, one party must in fact obstruct the ambitions of another. Yet again there are definitions resembling Abel (1982) which uphold the view of incompatible assertion to assets. Felstiner, Abel and Sarat (1981) and Mather and Yngvesson (1980-1981) rightly suggest that the explanation of conflict diverges because of the different perceptual and behavioral interpretations of various parties; therefore any definition must be flexible in order to fit in the context. The deficiency in much of the literature is the distinction between the actual conflict and its cueing circumstances. Pondy (1967) advocates that literature over the time presents conflict as being referred to as either of the following: (a) the Precursor conditions of conflict full behavior such as scarcity of resources, policy differences etc., (b) the Affective level of the individuals in the conflict such as strain, worry, resentment, fear, etc (c) the Cognitive level of those involved in the conflict such as their perceptions about and awareness of the conflict full situations (d) the actual conflict full behavior of the individuals involved in the conflict; this behavior continuum initiates from submissive resistance and ends on open hostility. Conflict has two approaches; to begin with the one which follows Schmidt and Kochan (1972), which focuses upon incidents pertinent to competitive intentions, comparable as purposely interfering with the differing individual's or party's goals, interests or views. This characterization is nearer to accepted practice of the expression conflict in the industrial relations literature (e.g. strikes and job actions). The next approach which follows Pondy (1967) and the 1976 Handbook chapter, envelops those events (usually perceptions) which precede the selection of conflict-management styles. To formulate a more clear and comprehensible picture and a more workable definition which surrounds different aspects of conflict, based on the contemporary literature, Conflict are the real or perceived perceptions, emotions and behaviors of the individuals or parties as well as the contexts and backgrounds in which the conflict takes place, which could be before (the taking into account the antecedent conditions) the conflict or synchronized with it, taking place at the actual moment of conflict.

Conflict management styles: Rahim and Bonama's (1979) categorization of the styles of settling interpersonal conflict is based on two facades, first when a person considers himself and his own concerns and the second when a person considers others and the concerns of others. Each of the dimensions is a continuum in nature, therefore consideration of the interests of one's own self or of the others', can be high or low. Moreover based on these two dimensions a third dimension can be analyzed which is a state in the middle where a person possesses a bit of both the facades that is to say consideration of one's own interests as well as the other's. Taking these categories as the foundation, five particular conflict managing styles have been devised namely (a) *Integrating*, in which a person highly considers his own interests as well as the interests of the other's, (b) *Avoiding*, is just the opposite of the integrating style, it is when a person has neither a concern for himself nor the others indicating low concerns in both the major two dimensions, (c) *Obliging* is a state in which a person does possess a high concern for others but possesses a low concern for himself. (d) *Dominating*, is the reciprocal of the obliging style of conflict

management, it is when a person has a high concern for own interests but a low concern for the interests of the other's. Last but not the least (e) *Compromising* style is the category which comes under the third dimension, this is when a person has some consideration for himself and some for the other.

Integrating: From the theoretical aspect on integrating style, it is presumed to produce a lesser conflict loaded atmosphere; Fisher and Ury (1991) support the argument of integrating in such a manner that a well judged, effective and efficient outcome of any dispute would only be by the means of careful and effortful examination of the aims and well being of all the persons involved. Experimental research indicates resembling opinions, of the sort of Pruitt et al, it shows that the peak level of mutual rewards were accomplished when negotiators possessed both a high concern for self and a high concern for others.

Obliging: Obliging refers to a more concern for others rather than for one's self, it also refers to easily giving up own interests for the sake of fulfilling other's. This strategy apparently seems an unproblematic way to patch up disagreements but not an always entirely efficient option. In obliging style one faction plainly gives in to the aims and interests of the other faction, in anticipation of resolving the conflict. A study by Fry, Firestone, and Williams (1983) concluded that members who are reluctant to stand up for their own requirements and which only looked after their partner's interests and needs of newly formed couples, , inclined to admit so quickly that they fail to spot the opportunities for collective benefits.

Dominating: When persons consider their own interest more than that of the others that is when they use the 'Dominating' style. People who use this style hold the view that by addressing at least their side of the disagreement and their own needs, will partially resolve the conflict. The possibility also remains that using such conflict handling style in which only one side of the problem is addressed will not conclude to complete and effective solution to the problem. According to Pruitt et al, dominating style users overlooked joint achievements.

Avoiding: People those who use an avoiding style of conflict management are deficit of the awareness of the problem's importance or how to deal with it. Not only do they lack consideration for themselves because they feel awkward to signify themselves, but also a low consideration for others as well which makes it difficult for them to understand other persons problems, need and interests. The avoiding style users are quite unable to devise better and effective solutions or alternatives to their conflict problem because they don't possess the fundamental knowledge of their own concerns or the other's besides not being much aware of the problem itself. With such contexts where there are lesser resources to employ ultimately tend to lesser probability of resolving the conflict, thereby unnecessarily stretching the problem. Hence people who avoid the problem are expected to encounter many and usually longer problems.

Compromising: Compromising is a pivotal sort of style more like barter where one has to give something to get something likewise here both the factions have to give up some of their own concerns in order to achieve an equilibrium position of agreement. This takes place when there is equal consideration for one's own concerns and the concerns of others. It would be win-win strategy in most cases from the fact that all the persons compromising end up satisfied because

neither of the factions entirely loses, but not to forget that neither of the factions entirely wins; only partial. Compromising is achieved by better communication of all the concerns among the persons involved and through mutual recognition of the requisites. Compromising would lead to the attainment of a different objective than that of the original.

This study will conceptualize conflict management strategies as the preferred choice of handling a conflict dependent on the parties involved in the conflict. A definition that considers possible variance in conflict management styles was chosen because conflicts are often times managed differently according to the parties involved and the context surrounding the conflict.

We also note that there has been little direct evidence that bears directly upon gender differences at higher management levels. The Chusmir and Mills (1989) study, which included men and women managers at three levels, found no significant gender effect after controlling for organization level. However, their data show some conversation between gender and organization level which could explain that finding. Some studies have found smaller gender differences among managers than non-managers (Korabik et al., 1993) or have found smaller differences among more experienced managers (Sorenson et al., 1995), suggesting that male and female conflict styles may converge at higher levels.

As previously stated, the focus of this study will be on the relationship between gender and conflict management styles in an organizational setting. There is little previous research that has incorporated a multidimensional treatment of conflict management strategies, and further research is necessary (Canary, Cunningham, & Cody, 1988; Song, et al., 2006). When looking at differences in conflict management styles in a workplace, an organizational variable such as status may help to explain the possible variance in conflict management styles. Status can be ambiguous; however, for the purpose of this study, status will be defined as “the organizational position that is occupied relative to others in the workplace” (Domagalski & Steelman, 2007). Multiple studies have addressed that status is a crucial aspect of organizational conflict management. Putnam and Poole (1987) explain that status has been underemphasized in most organizational communication research, and when researching conflict management styles the “choice of style may...hinge on the organizational position of the opponent in a conflict”. Additionally, Gross and Guerrero (2000) explored the appropriate and effective management of conflict, and suggested that the organizational positions of co-worker, superiors, and subordinates may have an impact on conflict management styles. A previous study used three similar financial organizations and looked at gender roles, conflict management strategies, and status in workplaces (Brewer et al., 2002). Additionally, the previous study explored conflicts with peers and not conflict between members of a different status (Brewer et al., 2002). There has been a great deal of research conducted on the communication between superiors and subordinates, which has demonstrated that the relationship between subordinates and superiors is unique (Infante & Gorden, 1981; Lamude, Daniels, & Grahm, 1988). When communicating with superiors, subordinates will often say what they feel to be acceptable but not necessarily true (Rahim, 1983). The differences in communication between superiors and subordinates may have an impact on the conflict management strategies used in a conflict between superiors and

Conflict Management Styles of Female Androgynous Supervisor and Subordinate

subordinates. As a result, this current study will explore status and conflict management between members of different organizational positions in a workplace in order to develop a more in-depth understanding of conflict management.

OBJECTIVES:

The objective of present study was as mentioned below:

- To study the impact of Androgynous Female Employees Status (Supervisor-Subordinates) on conflict management styles of organizational employees.
- To study the impact of Residential area (Rural and Urban) on conflict management styles of organizational employees.

METHOD

Participants:

The sample consisted of 220 Androgynous female employees working as supervisor and subordinates who lives in rural and urban area, Who are working in post office, telecom office and bank sector were selected to collect required information. These all institutions were selected from Rajkot city.

Instruments:

For data collection following tool were used:

Conflict Management Style inventory: Preferred conflict management styles were measured through the Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory II (ROCI-II) (Rahim, 1983). The participants were asked to respond on a 5-point Likert scale to each of the 28 items. The ROCI-II measures each participant's preferred conflict management style by classifying it into one of the five conflict resolution approaches: integrating, dominating, obliging, avoiding and compromising. The another of this inventory reported the range of Cronbach alpha from .72 to .77. The individual alpha coefficients for each style are .75(Avoiding), .72(compromising), .72(dominating), .77(integrating), and .72(obliging). This method of measuring organizational conflict has been proven both valid and reliable through its use in previous studies (Brewer et al., 2002; Rahim, 1983; Song et al., 2006).

Bem Sex role Orientation Inventory: The Indian adaptation of Bem's psychological sex-role orientation inventory (BSRI-A) by Rao, Gupta and Murthy (1982) was used. The inventory (BSRI-A) consists of 15 'Masculine' and 15 'Feminine' adjectives. Participants responded in terms of how well each attribute describes themselves on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging 1=Never or almost never true; 7=Always or almost always true. Mean self-rating on each scale were computed separately and used together as in index of androgyny, or as characterization of the person's gender role identification. The present study used the median split method to categorize participants as masculine, feminine, androgynous or undifferentiated. Bem reported split-half validity for masculine and feminine to be .45 and .55 respectively. The validity coefficients for

Conflict Management Styles of Female Androgynous Supervisor and Subordinate

averages ratings of peers are reported by the author as 0.36 (masculine) and 0.37 for feminine. Validity coefficients with self-ratings are reported to be 0.16 for masculine and 0.34 for feminine.

To categorize the subjects into four gender roles the following method has to be based:
Androgynous: Those having high scores on both masculine and feminine.

Masculine: Those having high scores on masculine and low scores on feminine.

Feminine: Those having low scores on masculine and high scores on feminine.

Undifferentiated: Those having low scores on both masculine and feminine.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

To analyze the research hypotheses, which looked at the differences between status, residential area and conflict management strategies, a Two-way ANOVA was used. This method of analysis allowed the researcher to look at the two categories of status, residential and the multiple conflict management strategies, and the differences that existed between the two variables. The results obtained are presented in the following table.

Table : Factorial analysis of variance of conflict management style with reference to Status and residential area

Conflict management style	Source of variation	Sum of squares	Df	Mean of Square	F
Integrating conflict management style	A(Status)	200.45	1	200.45	10.84**
	B(Area)	86.56	1	86.56	4.68*
	ABss	290.07	1	290.7	15.69**
	Wss	3993.02	216	18.49	-
	Tss	4570.10	219	-	-
Compromising conflict management style	A(Status)	8.80	1	8.80	1
	B(Area)	10.47	1	10.47	1.18
	ABss	19.33	1	19.33	2.19
	Wss	1900.78	216	8.80	-
	Tss	1939.38	219	-	-
Dominating conflict management style	A(Status)	90.37	1	90.37	8.01**
	B(Area)	90.38	1	90.38	8.01**
	ABss	92.59	1	92.59	8.20**
	Wss	2436.35	216	11.28	-

Conflict Management Styles of Female Androgynous Supervisor and Subordinate

	Tss	2709.69	219	-	-
Obliging conflict management style	A(Status)	32.84	1	32.84	3.60
	B(Area)	1.03	1	1.03	0.11
	ABss	35.5	1	35.5	3.88*
	Wss	1975.43	216	9.14	-
	Tss	2044.8	219	-	-
Avoiding conflict management style	A(Status)	21.0	1	21.01	1.33
	B(area)	45.45	1	45.45	2.88
	ABss	67.35	1	67.35	4.26*
	Wss	3408.94	216	15.78	-
	Tss	3542.75	219	-	-

*p<.05,**p<.01

In the table the descriptive statistics of all the variables is given.

ANOVA result reveal significant status main effects for integrating ($F=10.84$, $p<.01$) and significant effect on dominating conflict management style ($F=8.01$, $p<.01$), which denotes that the mean score of supervisor employees higher in integrating conflict management style ($M=28.01$) and dominating conflict management style ($M=16.26$), than integrating conflict management style of subordinates ($M=26.10$) and dominating conflict management style ($M=15.52$) result shows that integrating and dominating style more prefer by organizational supervisor employees. In the integrating style of conflict management it involves the high assertiveness and high cooperativeness, high concern for self as well as other party involved in conflict, that is why it is more used. Integrating conflict management style is used when both parties involved attempt to create a solution that is a win for both sides. From the research conducted by As per research conducted by Polychroniou (2006) it is revealed that the designation of a person do affect the integrating conflict style. According to Goodwin (2000) high designation employees use more integrating conflict management style than low designation employees.

Results further reveal that on affective residential area, significant main effect of integrating conflict management styles ($F=4.68$, $p<.05$) and dominating conflict management style ($F=8.01$, $p<.01$). Result shows integrating style more prefer by employees of rural area ($M=27.69$) than employees of urban area ($M=26.44$) and in dominating conflict management style, employees of rural area (14.98) use more dominating style than organizational employees who lives in urban area (16.26).

The research hypotheses asked about the possible relationship between status, residential area and preferred conflict management styles. In two-way ANOVA revealed significant status and residential effect on integrating conflict management style($F=15.69$, $p<.01$), dominating conflict management style ($F=8.20$, $p<.01$), Obliging conflict management style ($F=3.88$, $p<.05$) and avoiding conflict management style($F=4.26$, $p>.05$) which despite the fact that there was grater relationships seen in status and residential area, only one of the five conflict management

Conflict Management Styles of Female Androgynous Supervisor and Subordinate

strategies not determined a relationship between status, residential area and conflict management styles. For further interpretation of this interaction of designation and residential area Post hoc Tukey test was applied to find out the significance of differences among mean scores of all the four groups. Results are shows that, the highest amount of integrating conflict management style shows on supervisor employees of rural area (28.52) and subordinates employees who lives in urban area (25.36) use this style less than other groups, on dominating conflict management subordinates employees who lives in rural area (16.32) are more use this style. Subordinates employees who lives in urban area (14.85) use this style less than other groups. similarly on obliging conflict management style, subordinates who lives in rural area(22.10) prefer more this conflict management style, Subordinates employees who lives in urban area (20.07) use this style less than other groups. This findings support the results of Supervisors employees who lives in rural area (21.05) use this style less than other groups. The results of this study determined many significant relationships between the different variables and conflict management strategies. Although significant differences were not found for status and residential on compromising, avoiding and obliging conflict management style. There were interesting interaction effect found between designation and residential area on compromising, obliging and avoiding conflict management styles.

CONCLUSION

There was a significant differences between integrating, and dominating style in respect to designation, residential area and conflict management style. As expected, there were more significant differences between status and residential area interaction and conflict management than status and conflict management. Here there has been seen that the effect of status on the conflict management style is less significant than the effect of status and residential area on conflict management style.

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Work Life Balance in Relation to Well-Being of Religious and Non-Religious Employees

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ABSTRACT:

"Work life balance "is a person's control over the conditions in their workplace. The concept of work-family (life) balance has emerged from the acknowledgement that an individual's work-life and personal/family life may exert conflicting demands on each other. A balance between work and life is supposed to exist when there is a proper functioning at work and at home with a minimum of role conflict. "Well-being refers to how people evaluate their lives. According to Diener (1997), these evaluations may be in the form of cognitions or in the form of affect. The cognitive part is an information based appraisal of one's life that is when a person gives conscious evaluative judgments about one's satisfaction with life as a whole. The affective part is a hedonic evaluation guided by emotions and feelings such as frequency with which people experience pleasant/unpleasant moods in reaction to their lives.. Thus the purpose of the research was to explore the relation between work life balance and well-being among employees. Samples were selected through random sampling. 40 employees of different sectors working in Qatar participated in the research. Work life balance scale developed by Hayman(2005) and well-being scale developed by Nishi Zawa (1996). For statistical analysis Pearson correlation was used. Result showed that correlation between work life balance and well-being among non-religious employees was found to be negative and there was positive relation between work life balance and well-being among religious employees.

Keywords: work life balance, well-being, Qatar, teachers.

"Religious" belief is the belief in the reality of the mythological, supernatural, or spiritual aspects of a religion. Religious belief is distinct from religious practice or religious behaviours with some believers not practicing religion and some practitioners not believing religion. Religious beliefs, being derived from ideas that are exclusive to religion, often relate to the existence, characteristics and worship of a deity or deities, divine intervention in the universe and human life, or the deontological explanations for the values and practices centred on the teachings of a spiritual leader or group. **"Non-religious"** are those who are uninterested in religion or who reject it, this category may include the vague or unaffiliated, those who are only nominally or culturally affiliated to a religious tradition, and the superstitious.

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Work-life balance is the term used to describe those practices at workplace that acknowledge and aim to support the needs of employees in achieving a balance between the demands of their family (life) and work lives. A balance between work and life is supposed to exist when there is a proper functioning at work and at home with a minimum of role conflict. Therefore, the incompatibility between the demands from the work and non-work domain give rise to conflict and consequently, people experience a lack of WLB.

Hyman et al. (2004) observed that organizational pressures, combined with lack of work centrality, result in work intruding into non-work areas of employees' lives. Such intrusions often manifest themselves differently depending on the type of work, extent of autonomy and organizational support.

R. Baral and S. Bhargava (2011) have analyzed that family-friendliness of employers in India have been reflected in various welfare provisions which has been a matter of concern for employers since industrialization. With time, the scope and coverage of such initiatives have broadened and have become more individual growth and family well-being oriented.

Rakesh Yadav, (2011) analyzed that factors such as absence of personal life, physical strains, unscheduled work hours were affecting the attrition from HR perspective which could be minimized by giving extra break to employees who work continuously in night shift for five days, compensating workers with wellness programs and stress busters and aligning employees holidays with the clients' holidays.

Some employees love their work and work long hours by themselves, while others feel that they need to work long hours to demonstrate their commitment to their work. Role overload and role conflict are often predictors of personal life conflict (Carlson and Kacmar 2000).

Work interferes with family life and vice versa (Aldous 1969; Piotrkowski 1979; Staines 1980; Crouter 1984). These iterative processes may have both positive and negative consequences. For most people, work is the means for a better life and for improving the well-being of the family. Organisation expects its employees to work in tandem with its objectives and goals thus contributing positively to its productivity.

Well-being or welfare is a general term for the condition of an individual or group, for example their social, economic, psychological, spiritual or medical state; high well-being means that, in some sense, the individual or group's experience is positive, while low well-being is associated with negative happenings. James McNulty (2012) argues that, "well-being is not determined solely by people's psychological characteristics but instead is determined jointly by the interplay between those characteristics and qualities of people's social environments". Well-being consists of three interrelated components: life satisfaction, pleasant affect, and unpleasant affect. Affect refers to pleasant and unpleasant moods and emotions, whereas life satisfaction refers to a cognitive sense of satisfaction with life (Diener & Suh, 1997, p. 200). Achieving goals reflects the work of Emerson (1985) and Felce and Perry (1995), who believed that wellbeing stems from individuals' perception of their current situation and their aspirations.

Work Life Balance in Relation to Well-Being of Religious and Non-Religious Employees

Shah and Marks consider wellbeing to be more than just happiness. As well as feeling satisfied and happy, well-being means developing as a person, being fulfilled, and making a contribution to the community (2004).

Online interventions appear to help to improve the wellbeing of people with mental health conditions (Espie et al., 2012; Krusche et al., 2012; Morledge et al., 2013; Bowden, 2011).

Van Stolk et al. (2012) highlighted a number of approaches, such as stress recognition schemes, that are effective in improving mental health of employees. Other possible approaches, where the evidence base is still emerging, include interventions such as training line managers to recognize health conditions (Black, 2008; Hassan et al., 2009).

Psychological therapy improves wellbeing of people with mental health problems but there is limited evidence on improvements in employment outcomes. The available evidence from the targeted analysis conducted, which mainly relates to individual-level interventions, indicates that cognitive behavioural approaches can be effective in reducing mental ill-health, presenters and absenteeism (McDaid et al., 2008).

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This exploratory research discussed the relation between work life balance and wellbeing. The data collection is based on a field survey of employees working in Qatar.

H₁. work life balance and well-being are closely related to each other.

H₂. well-being is affected by work life balance.

Sampling and data collection-

Purposive sampling method was adopted for gathering sample of 40 employees from Qatar.

Participants- Sample of the study consisted of 40 participant's age range was 28-45. they were selected by purposive sampling technique from the different schools of Qatar.

Measurement- Scales used in present study was Work life balance scale developed by Hayman(2005) and well-being scale developed by Nishi zawa(1996) which were five-point scale.

Statistical tool used-

The collected data had been analysed by using mean rating scale, correlation.

RESULT

Table-1 Correlation between well-being and work-life balance among non-religious employees-

TABLE-1

	WORK LIFE BALANCE
WELL-BEING NON-RELIGIOUS	-.105

Table-2 Correlation between well-being and work life balance among religious employees-

TABLE-2

	Work life balance
Well-being	.118

According to above tables correlation between work life balance and well-being among non-religious employees is -.105 which is negative it means that when there is decrease in non-religious attitude there will be increase in work life balance or vice versa similarly in case of religious employees correlation is which means there is positive relation between work life balance and well-being.

Correlation between well-being and work life balance among employees

Work life balance and well-being are closely related to each other. Person with positive well-being will have good work life balance that is person who is happy can balance his work and personal life happily. Well-being is the most important component of life, person with positive well-being is more satisfied with his life. A lack of work-life balance has been shown to have a negative impact on certain aspects of psychological well-being (Frone, 2000; Higgins et al., 2010). Which means positive well being led to increase in work life balance. Working overtime has been shown to correlate with higher levels of anxiety and depression (Kleppan, Sanne& Tell, 2008) and with a lack of work-life balance (Dex & Bond, 2005). Jang (2009) found a positive correlation between work-place flexibility and work-life balance, which was related to positive well-being. Prior research also indicates that positive well-being or a sense of happiness leads to employees working harder (Amabile & Kramer, 2011). Moreover, it is important that one possess a sense of satisfaction with his or her work and feel supported by his or her employer as it relates to balancing work and personal life. Amabile & Kramer assert that even though there is an economic advantage for companies to invest in the well-being, truly there is also an ethical obligation to promote well-being.

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Psychological Well-Being in Government and Private

NGO's Abled Person

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ABSTRACT:

Main objective of the present study is to examine psychological well-being among Government and Private NGO's abled person. A sample of 80 male and female Government and Private NGO's abled person was drawn randomly selected Bhavnagar district area's NGO's. The psychological well-being scale: scale development and its correlates. Developed by Bhogle and Prakash was used for data collection. This scale in which five factors major meant. Data was collected by face to face interview method. Mean, SD and 't' test were calculated for the analysis of data. Results indicate that there is no significant difference among Government and Private NGO's abled person in psychological well-being.

Keywords: *Well-Being , Government and Private NGO, Abled Person*

Psychological Well-being refers to how people evaluate their lives. There evaluations may be in the form of cognition or in the form of affect. The concept of well being originated from positive psychology. The shift from negative to positive psychology is a welcome change in the discipline. The focus of positive psychology is to study the improvement in the lives of individuals.

Today in 21st century occupational field become very extensive because of promptly developed many industry and machinery and also progress many occupational field. There is specially teacher, student, doctor, engineer, etc.

"A psychological well-being as the general experience by individual that there will be positive outcome or circumstance" - Adams , bezner &Steinhardt(1997)

When the reasons for unhappiness are identified, how do? We mitigate them to reach well being? What are the identified challenges to well being?

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Among the many following are the few challenges:

1. Lifestyle related problem
2. Technological generated problems
3. Motivation and development
4. Evolutionary
5. Competition, promoting individualism and egoism.

OBJECTIVES

1. To study of the psychological well being in male and female government NGO's abled persons.
2. To study of the psychological well being in male and female private NGO's abled persons.

HYPOTHESIS:

1. There is no significant different between male and female from government ngo's abled person.
2. There is no significant different between male and female from private ngo's abled person.

VARIABLE:

In Present research following variable are show in this table:

Name of variable	Nature of variable	Number of variable
Two*groups	IV	03
Psychological well being	DV	04
Gender	IV	02

IV=Independent variable, DV=Dependent variable, *=male and female

SAMPLING:

Group	Male	Female	Total
Government	20	20	40
Private	20	20	40
Total	40	40	80

TOOLS:

In the present studies for finding of psychological well being level on the government and private NGO's abled persons the main objectives of this research. Percentage score presents study is for finding out the psychological well being scale (PWB) test used developed by Bhogle and Prakash (1995).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION:

Table no:1 male and female abled persons from government NGO's.

Groups	N	Mean	SD	SEM	t	Level
Male	20	51.65	9.40	1.27	2.00	0.01ns
female	20	54.13	6.72			

There is no significant different from government NGO's male and female abled persons. Female are more effective of psychological well being.

Table no: 2 male and female abled persons from private NGO's.

Groups	N	Mean	SD	SEM	t	Level
Male	20	94.86	16.74	1.21	2.00	0.01ns
female	20	101.23	14.42			

There is no significant different from private NGO's male and female abled persons. Female are more effective of psychological well being.

INTERPRETATION OF TABLE AND TESTING OF HYPOTHESIS:

1. There is no significant different between male and female abled persons from government ngo's.
2. There is no significant different between male and female abled person from private ngo's.

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Internet Addiction, Mental Health and Academic Performance of School Students/Adolescents

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ABSTRACT:

Every student desires to perform well in schooling whether it is academic performance or others. Students' performance gets distorted by many factors like overburden, difficulty of subject etc. Information technology has put another kind of burden on students. It is interesting on one hand while distracting on the other hand. This is mainly use of internet among adolescents due increasing literacy of computer and its uses in day today life. Observing present scenario the current study is aimed to find out the effect of internet addiction on mental health and academic performance of students. The sample consisted of 100 high school students, age ranging, 14 to 16 years drawn randomly from English medium schools of Rishikesh & Haridwar (Uttarakhand). Findings of the present study revealed that there was a significant effect of internet addiction on academic performance and mental health of students/adolescents. Results further indicated that the students who were in the severe and profound groups of internet addiction were found to have detrimental effects on both in their academic performance and mental health rather than the students who were addicted to the internet usage moderately.

Keywords: *Internet Addictions, Academic Performance, Mental Health, High School Students.*

Internet being the most easily accessible media to adolescents nowadays in the name of academic and other purposes has compelled to use it more and more. This media has not only become a good source of information for knowledge but also for other purposes like social interactions, gaming, entertainments and etc. Human nature being more tilted to enjoyment has increased use of internet. At the beginning it seems interesting later it becomes habit and last it may become addiction. And if one talks about adolescents who are more prone to fall prey of such distraction lead to create trouble for their schooling. The capacity of the Internet for socialization is a primary reason for the excessive amount of time people spend having real-time interactions using e-mail, discussion forums, chat rooms, and online games (Grohol, 2005). There are no universally accepted definitions for the captioned condition, but investigators seem to agree that it involves problematic computer usage that is time-consuming and causes distress or impairs functioning in important life domains.

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Several a etiological models have been proposed, from the diverse perspectives of learning theory, cognitive behavioral theory, social learning, reward deficiency, culture, genetics and neurobiology. Controversies abound, ranging from conceptual (whether behavioral addictions are true addictions), technical (which component of Internet use is a person 'addicted' to), and practical (how should Internet addiction be diagnosed, if it exists at all). However, using various instruments and populations, Internet addiction has been suggested as having a prevalence of 0.3 to 38%, with a young male preponderance. Several screening, diagnostic, and severity assessment instruments are now available, but few have been subjected to rigorous psychometric testing. Psychiatric co-morbidity is common. Treatment modalities lack a firm evidence base, but antidepressants, mood stabilizers, and cognitive behavioral therapy and other psychotherapies have been used. Recently, the American Psychiatric Association recommended including Internet addiction in its forthcoming 5th edition of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, but only as an appendix and not in the main body of the addictive disorders. This appears to be a fairly balanced and cautious approach, which can hopefully give rise to more meaningful research in this important but controversial area (Chakraborty et al., 2010). User participation at sites such as Blogger.com, MySpace.com, and Wikipedia.org increased by 525%, 318%, and 275% respectively (Walker, 2006). However, the networking capabilities of the Internet can cause social isolation and functional impairment of daily activities (Shapira et al., 2003). Broadly speaking, addiction is defined as a "compulsive, uncontrollable dependence on a substance, habit, or practice to such a degree that cessation causes severe emotional, mental, or physiological reactions (Louis, 1998). A perusal of the literature revealed various names for Internet addiction, including cyberspace addiction, Internet addiction disorder, online addiction, Net addiction, Internet addicted disorder, pathological Internet use, high Internet dependency, and others (Davis et al., 2002; Hur, 2006). Among these terms, Internet addiction is most popular (Thatcher and Goolam, 2005; Soule et al, 2003). The growing popularity of social networking sites (SNS) among the Internet users demands an introspection of personal and social behavior of human beings. Today 1.5 billion people across the world have their profiles in social networking sites. Everything looks nice when you create a profile on social networking site, but how you feel when someone starts blackmailing using your personal data. Your boss threatens to fire you for posting comments on SNS. You feel compulsive to check your profile during work hours. SNS becomes a reason for anxiety and addiction. It starts affecting personal relationship with spouse and family members. Such sites make private life and public life of an individual a digital document. How SNS affecting our social behaviour and relationships? Are we going towards a prosperous future or a darker world of SNS? (Das and Sahoo, 2012).

Recent researches at colleges and universities have suggested that some college students' academic performance might be impaired by heavier use of the Internet. Heavier recreational Internet use was shown to be correlated highly with impaired academic performance. Loneliness, staying up late, tiredness, and missing class were also inter-correlated with self-reports of Internet-caused impairment. Self-reported Internet dependency and impaired academic performance were both associated with greater use of all Internet applications, but particularly with much greater use of synchronous communication applications such as chat rooms and

MUDs, as opposed to asynchronous applications such as email and Usenet newsgroups (Kubey et al., 2001). In a study impact of internet literacy, internet addiction symptoms, and internet activities on academic performance examines the interrelationships among Internet literacy, Internet addiction symptoms, Internet activities, and academic performance. Regression results show that adolescent Internet addicts tended to be male, in low-income families, and not confident in locating, browsing, and accessing information from multiple resources, but that they were technologically savvy and frequent users of social networking sites (SNS) and online games for leisure. Contrary to what was hypothesized, Internet literacy, especially in publishing and technology, increases-not decreases-the likelihood of someone getting addicted to the Internet. As expected, Internet activities, especially SNS and online games, were significantly and positively linked to Internet addiction as well as to all Internet addiction symptoms. This finding suggests that leisure-oriented Internet activities can be much more addictive than other applications such as communicating by e-mail or browsing WebPages. Furthermore, the higher subjects scored on tool and social-structural literacy, the better their academic performance would be; however, technical literacy skills, such as publishing and technology literacy, were not significant predictors for academic performance. This indicates that adolescents who can locate, browse, and access different information resources and who are knowledgeable about the context under which the information was created performed better both in overall grades and in academic competence (Louis and Paul, 2012). Although computers and the internet, indispensable tools in people's lives today, facilitate life on the one hand, they have brought new risks with them on the other. The results show a significant negative correlation between academic self-efficacy and problematic internet use, while the relation between problematic internet use and academic procrastination was not statistically significant. Furthermore, academic self-efficacy was determined to be a significant predictor of problematic internet use. The results also show a significant difference in problematic internet use in terms of students' programs, though levels of problematic internet use did not differ in terms of sex or ownership of a computer (Hatice, 2011).

It is found of the 987 adolescents who took part in the study, 681 (68.9%) were female and 306 (31.1%) were males. The mean age of adolescents was 16.82 years. Of the total, about 74.5% were moderate (average) users. Using Young's original criteria, 0.7% were found to be addicts. Those with excessive use internet had high scores on anxiety, depression, and anxiety depression.

Internet addiction may be harmful from students' mental health point of view as well. Shu and Chieh-Ju (2007) compared Internet addicts and non-addicts in Taiwanese high school. The analytical results revealed that Internet addicts spent almost twice as many hours on line on average than the non-addicts. Notably, surfing with a social/entertainment motivation and gratification was positively correlated with Internet addiction. Furthermore, Internet addicts obtained markedly higher overall PIUST scores and scored higher than non-addicts on four subscales (tolerance; compulsive use and withdrawal; related problems, including family, school, health, and other problems; interpersonal and financial problems). While Internet addicts perceived the Internet to have significantly more negative influences on daily routines, school

performance, teacher and parental relation than non-addicts, both Internet addicts and non-addicts viewed Internet use as enhancing peer relations. Moreover, students with personalities characterized by dependence, shyness, depression and low self-esteem had a high tendency to become addicted. Internet addiction not only may influence academic performance and mental health of students but also may become a reason for suicidal ideation among them. The relationship of Internet addiction to depression and suicidal ideation, it was examined among 1573 participants of high-school students living in a city who completed the self-reported measures of the Internet Addiction Scale. A correlation survey design was employed. Among the samples, 1.6% was diagnosed as Internet addicts, while 38.0% was classified as possible Internet addicts. The prevalence of Internet addiction did not vary with gender. The levels of depression and suicide ideation were highest in the Internet-addicts group. Future studies should investigate the direct relationship between psychological health problems and Internet dependency (Kyunghee et al., 2006). The severity of Internet addiction was evaluated using Young's Internet addiction test. The proportions of boys who were classified as Internet addicts and possible Internet addicts were 2.5% and 53.7%, respectively. For girls, the corresponding proportions were 1.9% and 38.9%, respectively. The prevalence of EDS was 11.2% (boys, 11.2%; girls, 11.1%). When Internet addicts were compared with non-addicts, they consisted of more boys, drank alcohol more, and considered their own health condition as poor. But smoking was not related with Internet addiction. The prevalence rate of EDS for Internet addicts was 37.7%, whereas that for possible Internet addicts and non-addicts was 13.9% and 7.4%, respectively. The prevalence of insomnia, witnessed snoring, apnea, teeth grinding, and nightmares was highest in Internet addicts, middle in possible addicts, and lowest in non-addicts. With adjustment for duration of Internet use, duration of sleep time, age, gender, smoking, taking painkillers due to headache, insomnia symptoms, witnessed apnea, and nightmares, the odds of EDS were 5.2-fold greater (95% confidence interval [CI]: 2.7–10.2) in Internet addicts and 1.9-fold greater (95%CI: 1.4–2.6) in possible Internet addicts compared to non-addicts. Internet addiction is strongly associated with EDS in adolescents. Clinicians should consider examining Internet addiction in adolescent cases of EDS (Kwisook et al., 2009). Problematic Internet addiction or excessive Internet use is characterized by excessive or poorly controlled preoccupations, urges, or behaviours regarding computer use and Internet access that lead to impairment or distress. Currently, there is no recognition of internet addiction within the spectrum of addictive disorders and, therefore, no corresponding diagnosis. It has, however, been proposed for inclusion in the next version of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorder (DSM). A review of published literature between 2000–2009 in Medline and PubMed using the term internet addiction surveyed in the United States and Europe have indicated prevalence rate between 1.5% and 8.2%, although the diagnostic criteria and assessment questionnaires used for diagnosis vary between countries. Cross-sectional studies on samples of patients report high co morbidity of Internet addiction with psychiatric disorders, especially affective disorders (including depression), anxiety disorders (generalized anxiety disorder, social anxiety disorder), and attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD). Several factors are predictive of problematic Internet use, including personality traits, parenting and familial factors,

alcohol use, and social anxiety. Although Internet-addicted individuals have difficulty suppressing their excessive online behaviours in real life, little is known about the pathophysiological and cognitive mechanisms responsible for Internet addiction. Due to the lack of methodologically adequate research, it is currently impossible to recommend any evidence-based treatment of Internet addiction (Weinstein and Lejoyeux, 2010). Several authors think Internet addiction is a separate disorder that merits inclusion in DSM-V. There is considerable controversy about this opinion. To assess the prevalence of Internet addiction in a representative sample of high school students attending secondary institutions in the district of Cremona and to assess any difference concerning variables such as gender, age, place of residence and kind of school attended. The majority of respondents were classified as normal users of the Internet ($n = 2386$, 94.19%), with 127 (5.01%) moderately addicted and 20 (0.79%) seriously addicted. Significant differences in gender and in kinds of school were found. No statistical differences were revealed in age and urban or rural conditions. This study has confirmed the general use of the Internet among youngest people, the emergence of Internet addiction and the male preponderance of this phenomenon (Roberto & Emilia, 2012). Internet addiction is a newly emergent disorder. It has been found to be associated with a variety of psychiatric disorders. Information about such coexisting psychiatric disorders is essential to understand the mechanism of Internet addiction. In a described the updated results for such disorders of Internet addiction which include substance use disorder, attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder, depression, hostility, and social anxiety disorder. It also provides a discussion for possible mechanisms accounting for the coexistence of psychiatric disorders and Internet addiction. The review might suggest that combined psychiatric disorders mentioned above should be evaluated and treated to prevent their deteriorating effect on the prognosis of Internet addiction. On the other hand, Internet addiction should be paid more attention to when treating people with these coexisting psychiatric disorders of Internet addiction. Additionally, it also suggests future necessary research directions that could provide further important information for the understanding of this issue (Koa et al., 2012). This study was designed to investigate the prevalence of Problematic Internet Use (PIU) and to investigate the potential risk factors for PIU among high school students in China. A cross-sectional study was conducted. Generalized mixed-model regression revealed that there was no gender difference between PIUs and non-PIUs. High study-related stress, having social friends, poor relations with teachers and students and conflictive family relationships were risk factors for PIU. Students who spent more time on-line were more likely to develop PIU. The habits of and purposes for Internet usage were diverse, influencing the susceptibility to PIU. PIU is common among high school students and risk factors are found at home and at school. Teachers and parents should pay close attention to these risk factors. Effective measures are needed to prevent the spread of this problem (Wang et al., 2011). A considerable body of research indicates that social support plays an integral role in determining students' successful adjustment to college. Unlike previous research that has evaluated face-to-face support interventions that occur during students' first semester at college, study reports on a student-centered social media site designed to enhance students' perceptions of social support prior to their arrival on campus. Results indicated that site usage increased students' perceptions

that they would have a diverse social support network during their first semester at college, even when controlling for other potent predictors (David et al., 2012). In a study related to facebook and disorders has revealed more facebook friends predicted more clinical symptoms of bipolar-mania, narcissism and histrionic personality disorder but fewer symptoms of dysthymia and schizoid personality disorder. Technology-related attitudes and anxieties significantly predicted clinical symptoms of the disorders. After factoring out attitudes and anxiety, Facebook and selected technology uses predicted clinical symptoms with Facebook use, impression management and friendship being the best predictors. The results showed both positive and negative aspects of technology including social media as well as apparently detrimental effects of a preference for multitasking (Rosen et al., 2013). Cyberbullying has become a common occurrence among adolescents worldwide. A study investigated the epidemiological characteristics and risk factors of cyberbullying, utilizing a sample of 1,438 high school students from central China. Findings revealed that cyberbullying among high school students in the heartland of central China is relatively common with 34.84% (N = 501) of participants reported having bullied someone and 56.88% (N = 818) reported having been bullied by online. Significant gender differences were found, suggesting that boys are more likely to be involved in cyberbullying both as perpetrators and victims. Students with lower academic achievement were more likely to be perpetrators online than were students with better academic achievement. Students who spend more time on online, have access to the internet in their bedrooms, have themselves experienced traditional bullying as victims, and are frequently involved in instant-messaging and other forms of online entertainment are more likely to experience cyberbullying. Increased parent and teacher supervision reduced students' involvement in cyberbullying. Implications for intervention are explored (Zongkui et al., 2013). The term Internet addiction encompasses a broad range of activities which in isolation have rarely been studied for their clinical relevance. This study looks at whether video game addiction and Internet addiction can be regarded as distinct nosological entities and whether there is a differential impact on those affected. It also aims to describe the type of activities that contribute most to the addiction. Methods: Data was collected in a school survey of Grade 7 to 10 students (M = 14.5 years; n = 4 436). Besides video game addiction (CSAS-II) and Internet addiction (CIUS), indicators of media consumption, functional level, well-being, burden for significant others and psychological strain were collected. Results: Internet and video game addiction can be regarded as two distinct sociological entities. This differentiation is supported by differences in socio-demographic variables and measures of validation. The subjective suffering seems to be higher among adolescent video game addicts than Internet addicts. Girls with an Internet addiction cite social networks almost exclusively as the cause of their problem while boys also name pornography. Discussion: In research on Internet addiction, a greater differentiation is needed regarding the underlying activities (Florian, 2013).

OBJECTIVES

1. To study the effect of internet addiction on academic performance of school students/ adolescents.

2. To study the effect of internet addiction on mental health of school students/ adolescents.

HYPOTHESES

1. There would be significant effect of internet addiction on academic performance of school students/ adolescents.
2. There would be significant effect of internet addiction on mental health of school students/ adolescents.

METHODOLOGY

Sample: The sample for the present investigation consisted of 120 school students/adolescents (60 males and 60 females), age ranging 14 to 16 years randomly selected from English medium schools at Rishikesh & Haridwar (Uttarakhand) respectively.

Research Design and Data Analysis

The present investigation is a quantitative assessment to study the effect of internet addiction on academic performance and mental health of school students/ adolescents. F-test is used to assess the effect of internet addiction on academic performance and mental health of high school students.

Tools: The following Questionnaires were administered for the present investigation:

MENTAL HEALTH SCALE (Bhatia and Sharma, 1998): The M.H.S. measure a total of five dimensions of the mental health of the students' i.e. realistic, joyful living, autonomy, emotional stability and social maturity. It contains a total of 50 items (10 items in each dimension with some of positive and negative items). The respondents are to respond on a five point scale. The total score ranges from 50 to 250. Its' overall reliability is 0.89.

INTERNET ADDICTION TEST (Kimberly Young, 1998): The IAT is a reliable and valid measure of addictive use of Internet. It consists of 20 items. The respondents are to respond on a five point scale. According to Young's criteria, total IAT scores 20-39 represent average users (moderate) with complete control of their internet use (severe), scores 40-69 represent over-users (profound) with frequent problems caused by their internet use, and scores 70-100 represent internet addicts with significant problems caused by their internet use. The scale has shown an internal consistency of 0.93.

ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE: Academic performance is registered in form of marks (scores) taken from their overall academic subjects' evaluation as per the record in their examination department. This score range from 0 to 500

RESULTS & DISCUSSION

The present study attempted to assess the effect of internet addiction on academic performance and mental health of performance of school students/adolescents.

The f-test is applied for the purpose of statistical interpretation to test the significant effect of internet addiction. Results & discussion of the present study are as follows:

The following table (Table No-1) showing the effect of internet on academic performance of School students/Adolescents.

TABLE NO:-1

Source of Variance	Df	MS (V)	f-value
Between Groups	2	273.66	3.33*
Within Groups	117	82.20	

* Significant at 0.05 level.

Table No. 1 reveals the effect of internet addiction on academic performance of adolescents. There were three groups based on internet addiction in which first group is related to average users of internet and second and third severe and profound groups respectively. Results revealed that the Mean Square Variance MS (V) between groups was 273.66, the mean square variance within the groups was 82.20 and the f-value (3.33*) was found to be significant at 0.05 level. Therefore, our first hypothesis is accepted which states that there would be a significant effect of internet addiction on the academic performance of adolescents/ school students. Thus it may be inferred from the findings that internet addiction did influence the academic performance of school students. Furthermore, it is results also indicate that the severe and profound groups of internet addiction were found to be more prone to having difficulties in the academic/scholastic performance.

The following table (Table No-2) showing the effect of internet on mental health of school students/Adolescents.

TABLE NO:- 2

Source of Variance	Df	MS (V)	F-value
			3.63*
Between Groups	2	311	
Within Groups	117	85.6	

* Significant at 0.05 level.

Results summarised in Table No 2 indicate the effect of internet addiction on mental health of students. Results indicated that MS (V) for between and within groups was found to be 311 and 85.6 respectively. The MS (V) value at ($f=3.63$) further indicates that there would be significant effect of internet addiction on the mental health of adolescents/students. So our second hypothesis stands accepted. One can conclude from our findings that there is a significant effect of internet addiction on the mental health of students. One plausible explanation for the same could be that adolescents find the internet a much more accessible, convenient and easy mode of expressing their feelings and emotions than resorting to a face to face mode of communication.

CONCLUSION

Findings of the present study revealed that there was a significant effect of internet addiction on academic performance and mental health of students/adolescents. Results further indicated that the students who were in the severe and profound groups of internet addiction were found to have detrimental effects both in their academic performance and mental health rather than the students who were addicted to the internet usage moderately. Therefore, one can conclude from the present investigation that internet usage can be beneficial to students in their academic set-up and may not cause potential harm to their mental health if used in moderation. However, more comprehensive research is needed on diverse sample to substantiate the same.

RECOMMENDATIONS:

Research conducted across the globe strongly indicates that adolescence is a period of storm and stress and a stage of identity Vs. Role confusion. Taking that into consideration since the sample of our study (14-16 year school students) consisted of an age group that could be more prone to getting addicted to the internet and making wrong use of it, here are a few suggestions that can be used as a precautionary measure to guard against the same:

- Contents of internet surfing need to be monitored by parents and significant others.
- Duration of the internet surfing must be predefined.
- Internet surfing must be encouraged in open place/s.
- Infected/unwanted sites must be blocked.

- Sites developers need to identify and define the age groups strictly.

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Effectiveness of Cognitive Behaviour Therapy in the Management of Anxiety among School Students

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ABSTRACT:

Anxiety is a feeling of uneasiness characterized by irritability, palpitations, dry mouth, tension and a feeling of impending doom. Anxiety feels like “fear”; one might know what one is afraid of, but it is difficult to know what makes one anxious. Anxiety impairs academic performance. The aim of the present study is to find out effectiveness of Cognitive behaviour therapy in the management of anxiety among school students. One hundred thirty healthy and well motivated school students, sixty five Boys and sixty five girls, studying Higher Secondary Course at Cambridge Matriculation and Higher Secondary School, Bangalore, constituted as a sample for the present study. School students were administered with 16 Personality Factor Questionnaire Form D (**16 PF**) to assess anxiety in their basic personality. Out of 130 school students, 50 students, twenty five Boys and twenty five Girls, who showed high anxiety in the assessment of personality (**16 PF**), were administered with State Trait Anxiety Index (**STAI**) to assess the magnitude and severity of anxiety. Fifty School students, who were identified as anxiety prone in the personality test, showed high anxiety on **STAI**. They were managed through Cognitive behaviour therapy (**CBT**) to counteract ill-effects of anxiety for three months. Results clearly indicate that there is extremely significant difference ($P > 0.0001$) existing between pre and post test Trait anxiety Percentile Rank scores of school students. **CBT** helped in the management of anxiety among school students. **CBT** seems to be one of the most effective, less time consuming and more economical therapeutic techniques in the management of anxiety among school students.

Keywords: *Cognitive behaviour therapy, anxiety, school students*

Anxiety is a feeling of uneasiness characterized by irritability, palpitations, dry mouth, tension and a feeling of impending doom. Anxiety feels like “fear”; one might know what one is afraid of, but it is difficult to know what makes one anxious. Usually anxiety is caused due to stress. Anxiety manifests itself in several other ways like forgetfulness, aggression, low self esteem, lack of confidence and eating disorders.

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Effectiveness of Cognitive Behaviour Therapy in the Management of Anxiety among School Students

Anxiety is a trait found in personality and is commonly referred to as Neuroticism or emotional instability or poor stress tolerance. Anxiety is a psychological and physiological state characterized by cognitive, somatic, emotional, and behavioral components. These combine to create an unpleasant feeling that is typically associated with uneasiness, fear or worry (Seligman, et al., 2001).

The general symptoms of anxiety are feeling of threat, excessive worry, tremor, twitchy sensations and nervousness, aching and sore muscles, restlessness, sleeping difficulties, inability to concentrate and irritability. Other symptoms to identify anxiety include intestinal distress, frequent urination, trouble swallowing, lump in the throat, over sensitivity in interpersonal relationship, difficulty in decision making, depression, vague apprehensions and fears. The common signs of acute anxiety are feelings of fear or dread, restlessness, trembling, muscle tension, rapid heartbeat, light headedness or dizziness, perspiration, cold hands / feet and shortness of breath (Christensen, 2006 ; Rosen and Schulkin, 1998)..

Chandramohan et al., (1998) utilised Cognitive behaviour therapy for the management of airsickness and fear of flying among ab-initio pilot trainees. 100% success rate was achieved through Cognitive behaviour therapy.

A minimal amount of anxiety is essential for good academic performance. Once it exceeds the limit, it impairs the academic performance. Hence, the present study was undertaken to find out an effective therapeutic technique for the management of anxiety among school students.

AIM

The aim of the present study was to find out effectiveness of Cognitive behaviour therapy in the management of anxiety among school students.

OBJECTIVE

The main objective of the present study was to identify and prevent ill effects if anxiety among school students thereby academic performance can be improved. Tension free life brings healthy living not only as a student but also as a good professional. It reduces attrition rate among school students.

MATERIALS AND METHOD

One hundred thirty healthy and well motivated students, sixty five Boys and sixty five girls, age ranging from 15 to 18 years, studying Higher Secondary Course at Cambridge Matriculation and Higher Secondary School, Bangalore, constituted as a sample for the present study. School students were administered with 16 Personality Factor Questionnaire Form – “D” (16 PF) to assess anxiety in their basic personality. Short detail of Psychological tests is given below:

16 PERSONALITY FACTOR QUESTIONNAIRE – FORM “D” (16 PF) – Cattell (1970) has developed 16 PF to assess basic personality structure of an individual. 16 PF is a well known

Effectiveness of Cognitive Behaviour Therapy in the Management of Anxiety among School Students

objectively scoreable factorial test of personality. 16 PF is multi dimensional set of sixteen questionnaire scale arranged in an omnibus form. It is comprehensive in coverage and give information regarding an individual's standing on sixteen Primary Factors and eight Second Order Factors. Cattell has developed different forms of 16 PF and they are Form 'A', 'B', 'C', 'D' and 'E'. The Computerised version of 16 PF has been developed by Chandramohan (1991), at Institute of Aerospace Medicine, IAF, Bangalore, is used for analysing the responses. On obtaining the STEN score, an individual's relating standing in each of the factor is expressed on a Profile Chart. The STEN score positions for each factor are distributed over ten equal interval STEN points (Standard Score Points) from 1 through 10, with the population average fixed at 5.5 and standard deviation at 1. 16 PF test - Form "D" is used in the present study. This test has got 105 statements. There is no right or wrong answers. Answer as honestly as possible to give the first response coming into your mind. Three boxes are given on the answer sheet to record the responses. Students are asked to choose one answer out of 3 choices, by putting, a "✓" mark inside the box. Here, A - True or Yes, B - Sometimes, In between, Occasionally, Uncertain, C - False or No. Try to avoid choosing 'B' as an answer because it does not reflect any qualities. It usually takes 30 minutes to complete.

Scoring: Each answer is awarded with marks 0, 1 and 2. Whereas, for Factor B, the scores are 0 (incorrect) or 1 (Correct). The total score constitute the raw score for that particular trait. The raw score is further converted into Standard (STEN) score, using norms supplied by the author. The STEN scores are reflected on the Profile Chart to see the individual's relative standing on the 16 Primary Traits. The Second Order Factors are calculated from the scores of Primary Factors. The 8 Second Order factors are, as follows:

Factor I	-	ANXIETY	- Low Vs High Anxiety
Factor II	-	EXTRAVERSION	- Introversion Vs Extraversion
Factor III	-	TOUGH POISE	- Emotional Sensitivity Vs Alert poise
Factor IV	-	INDEPENDENCE	- Subduedness Vs Independence
Factor V	-	SUPEREGO/CONTROL	- Low Control Vs High Control
Factor VI	-	ADJUSTMENT	- Neuroticism Vs Adjustment
Factor VII	-	LEADERSHIP	- Low Leadership Vs High Leadership
Factor VIII	-	CREATIVITY	- Low Creativity Vs High Creativity

Md (Motivational distortion score) – STEN score above 7, the test is invalid

Significance level of STEN score on Primary Factors

STEN 1 – 3	=	Low score
STEN 4 - 6	=	Average
STEN 8 - 10	=	High score

Significance level of STEN score on Second Order Factors

STEN 1 - 4	=	Low score
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Effectiveness of Cognitive Behaviour Therapy in the Management of Anxiety among School Students

STEN 5 - 6 = Average
STEN 7 - 10 = High score

STEN score 4 and 7 shows tendency towards that particular trait

Out of 130 school students, 50 students, twenty Boys and twenty five Girls, who were high on anxiety in the personality test (Table 1), constituted as a sample for the final study.

Table 1: Sample Characteristics

PARAMETER	HIGH ANXIETY ON 16 PF TEST	
	NUMBER	%
BOYS	25	17
GIRLS	25	17

Table I showed Sample characteristics. Out of one hundred and thirty school students, 25 Boys (17%) and 25 Girls (17%) were high on anxiety in the 16 PF test. Hence, the sample taken for the present study was a homogenous sample.

Table 2 : Mean Pretest Percentile rank of STAI

PARAMETER	STATE ANXIETY		TRAIT ANXIETY	
	MEAN	SD	MEAN	SD
Boys (n=65)	52	27	45	21
Girls (n=65)	44	18	42	25

Table 2 showed mean Pretest Percentile Rank of the school students. It was evident from the Table that boys were high on State anxiety but low on Trait anxiety. On the other hand, both the Boys and Girls were low on State and Trait anxiety.

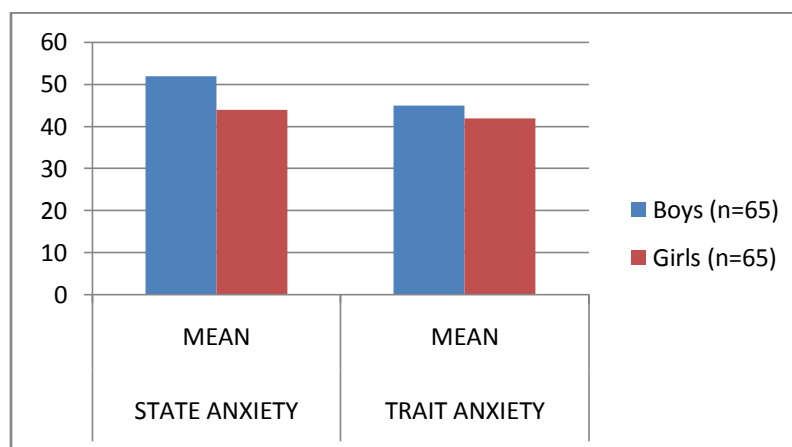


Figure 1: Mean Pretest and Posttest Percentile rank of STAI

Effectiveness of Cognitive Behaviour Therapy in the Management of Anxiety among School Students

Out of 130 students, only 25 Boys and 25 Girls were high on anxiety. The remaining students were free from anxiety. These fifty school students were exposed to CBT, once in a day on an empty stomach, five days in a week for three months, CBT included Modified Jacobson's Progressive muscular Relaxation therapy (Kaliappan and Murthy (1978), Bensons Relaxation therapy and Mental Imagery (imagining natural sceneries such as seaside appealing beach, parks, waterfalls) and psychological way of studying was explained (attached as Annexure).

Cognitive behaviour therapy group was administered with State Trait Anxiety Index (STAI) before (Pretest) and after three months (Posttest) of continuous treatment to assess the magnitude and severity of anxiety (Table 3).

Short detail of Psychological tests is given below:

STATE TRAIT ANXIETY INDEX (STAI): Spielberger (1979) has developed to assess level of anxiety. STAI - State Anxiety is transitional, situational and also called as surface anxiety. For example, fear of examination, medical examination of the patient, facing the interview. On the other hand, STAI - Trait Anxiety is inborn, inherited and also called as source anxiety. Norms are available for high school and college students, medical and psychiatric patients, young prison inmates and normal adults, males and females separately. STAI consists of 20 statements in each. In the STAI – State Scale, the subject is asked to rate his / her immediate feelings (how he / she feels at that particular moment?). In the STAI - Trait Scale, the subject is asked to rate his/her feelings for the past 2 years. Record all your answers on a separate answer sheet. Do not make any marking on the questionnaire. It usually takes 10 minutes to finish each scale. Scoring: Standard scoring procedure adopted. Lower the percentile rank, the less nervous and anxious person you are; the higher your score, the more nervous and anxious a person you are.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

The findings of the present study were discussed on Table 3 Figure 2.

Table 3: Mean Pre and Posttest Percentile rank of Trait Anxiety of the treatment group

PARAMETER	PRE TEST		POST TEST		“t” – Value	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE
	MEAN	SD	MEAN	SD		
Boys (n=25)	68	6	9	7	31.99	P >0.0001
Girls (n=25)	65	5	2	1	61.77	P >0.0001

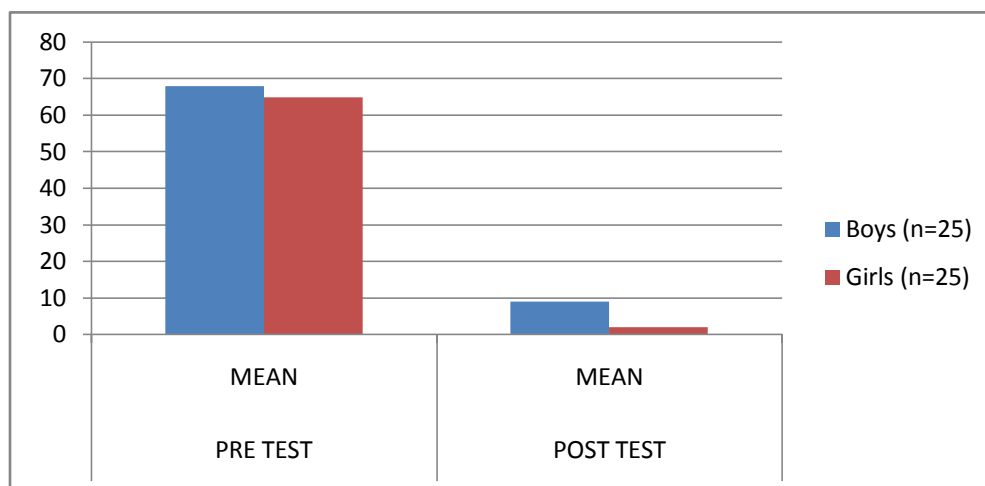


Fig 2: Mean Pre and Posttest Percentile rank of Trait Anxiety of the school students

Table 3 showed that there is extremely significant difference ($P > 0.0001$) existing between Pretest and Posttest scores of the Trait anxiety. Girls were better ($P > 0.0001$) than the Boys in managing the anxiety through CBT. CBT is one of the best therapeutic techniques in the management of anxiety among school students.

The follow-up assessment revealed that they could lead an anxiety free life and to a great extent were able to identify their stressors and triggers and were able to apply the coping mechanisms taught to them during the therapy sessions.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Anxiety affects general well-being and impairs academic performance. It also affects harmony in the family life. Anxiety in personality affects one's confidence and output. Children with anxiety can either become a shy and introverted personality or an aggressive personality. As it is said balance is the most important factor in leading a healthy happy life. Similarly anxiety in a balance proportion acts as a well wisher for the individual. It can encourage and motivate to do well, do better, prepare for an exam or presentation or interview. When in excess it affects the day-to-day life activities of the person and can change the very personality of the individual. High anxiety impairs the academic performance. The present study was undertaken to see the effect of CBT in the management of anxiety.

The following conclusions were drawn from the present study:

1. Cognitive behaviour therapy helps students to overcome anxiety within a shorter span of time
2. CBT Girls are the best in the management of their anxiety
3. CBT helps to overcome anxiety and improve academic performance

4. In sum, CBT is one of the best therapeutic techniques in the management of anxiety among students. It is more economical and less time consuming method of management of anxiety,

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Classroom Physical Environment and Academic

Achievement of Students

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ABSTRACT:

The present study explored the relationship between classroom environment and academic achievement of the subjects. The subjects 11th class students. The sample of 80 students was selected from various colleges of Aurangabad city. Simple random sampling method was used for selecting subjects. The study was experimental “pre-test post-test equivalent group design” was used for this study. Statistical data was collected from pre-test post-test. Mean, standard deviation and t test were used for statistical procedure. In this study results are significant at 0.05 level. The study showed that there is significant difference between classroom physical environment and academic achievement of subjects.

Keywords: *Classroom physical environment, academic achievement, 11th class students.*

Schools and colleges are the most important part of student's life, they spend $\frac{1}{4}$ of the day (6hours) in the schools and colleges. The classroom is the formal environment for the learning. A comfortable and conducive classroom environment motivates the students to perform better and encourage the learning process. There are so many factors which influence the students' whole school performance. Classroom physical environment is the most important variable.

Student's academic achievement is influenced by school environment. Classroom physical environment plays important role in student's educational success. Physical environment defined as the physical characteristics of classroom. Physical classroom environment includes different things like size of classroom, floor, walls, desks, lighting, school structure, school climate, computer etc. Many studies found that physical environment is essential for educational success. Studies in Capistrano, United School, District in Orange city, California, found that the students in well-designed classrooms performed 19 to 26% better than their peers in classrooms without these features (Hale 2002). Kaur A. (2001), Bennu (2002) shows that there is a positive correlation between classroom environment and academic achievement. Temperature and ventilation also affected the classroom learning environment.

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Classroom Physical Environment and Academic Achievement of Students

In too cold and too hot classrooms students feel uncomfortable. According to Halstead 1974, high temperature and humidity creates physiological and psychological problems and people work more slowly apply much efforts and causes make more mistakes and errors.

The research done by Treagust and Wahyudi (2004), found that there were significant difference between perception of preferred and actual learning environment, with students tending to prefer more favourable classroom environment than which they actually experienced. Lyons(2001) found in his study that poor school facilities impact the teacher's performance and has negative effects on student's achievement. In the study MacAulay(1990) and Walker (1995), found that well-structured classrooms improve student's academic achievement.

AIM OF THE STUDY

Classroom physical environment plays important role in academic achievement of student. The present study intends to examine the effect of classroom physical environment on student's academic achievement.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1. To find out the relationship between classroom physical environment and academic achievement of the subjects.

HYPOTHESES

1. There is no significant difference between performance of experimental and control groups on pre-test.
2. There is significance difference between performance of experimental group and control group on post-test.

METHODOLOGY

Sample:

For this study 80 subjects were selected from different colleges of Aurangabad city. The subjects were 11th class students. Male and female ratio will be taken in equal sample size. For this study random sampling method was used.

Tools:

For this study pre-test post-test method was used for data collection. Two question papers were prepared for pre-test and post-test and used as research instruments. The scores on pre-test and post-test were used for statistical analysis.

Variables under study:

Independent variable

1. Classroom physical environment

Dependent variable

1. Academic achievement

Classroom Physical Environment and Academic Achievement of Students

Design of the study:

This study was experimental study. The pre-test post-test equivalent groups were used. Sample subjects were randomly allocated to experimental group and control group.

Research design

Group	Pre-test	Independent Variable	Post-test
E	Y_b	X	Y_a
C	Y_b	-	Y_a

E – Experimental Group

C – Control Group

Y_b - pre-test score

Y_a - post-test score

Procedure

80 students were selected randomly from different colleges from Aurangabad city. Subjects were randomly allocated to experimental group and control group. For this study two teachers were appointed for teach English subject. They were taught for two weeks. They had taught four lessons. They prepared two question papers. One was used for pre-test and second was used for post-test and the marks on these two question papers were used as a scores on pre-test and post-test. In this way statistical data was collected through pre-test and post-test technique.

Selection of the teachers for the experiment

For this study two teachers which have same qualification and same teaching experience were selected for both groups. Their qualification were M.A. English and B.Ed

Arrangement of classroom physical environment for this study

The researcher arranged two classrooms for this study one for experimental group and second for control group. The classroom for experimental group had various physical facilities proper desk-chairs arrangement, proper lighting, ventilation, harts, projector, whiteboard, well painted walls, drinking water etc. Classroom was specious. The classroom for control group had only black board, benches and classroom was very small.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Ho. 1 There is no significant difference between performance of experimental and control groups on pre-test.

Table 1: Showing the significance of difference between the mean scores of control and experimental groups on pre-test.

Category	N	Mean	SD	SE	T
Experimental Group	40	23.07	3.38	0.8	0.83
Control Group	40	40.55	4.05		

Non-significant ($p < 0.05$)df- 79t at 0.05 level = 0.83

Classroom Physical Environment and Academic Achievement of Students

The mean score of experimental group and control group on pre-test are 23.07 and 40.55. Standard deviation for experimental and control group are 3.38 and 4.05. The 't' ratio is 0.83 which is non-significant at 0.05 level. So the null hypothesis "there is no significant difference between the performance of control and experimental groups on pre-test" is accepted. It is concluded that the performance of students of experimental group and control group are similar on pre-test.

Ho. 2 There is no significant difference between the performance of experimental and control groups on post-test.

Table 2. Showing the significance of difference between the mean scores of control and experimental groups on post-test.

Category	N	Mean	SD	SE	T
Experimental Group	40	40.55	4.05	4.12	2.80
Control Group	40	29	4.97		

Significant ($p < 0.05$)

t at 0.05 level = 2.80

The mean score of experimental group and control group on post-test are 40.55 and 29. Standard deviation for experimental and control groups are 4.05 and 4.97. t ratio is 2.80 which is significant at 0.05 level. Hence null hypothesis that "there is no significant difference between the performance of experimental group and control group on post-test" is rejected. Hence it was concluded that subjects of experimental group performed better as compared to the subjects of control group on post-test.

DISCUSSION

The present study discovered relationship between academic achievement and classroom environment. This was an experimental study. For this study researcher is used pre-test post-test equivalent group design. For this study subjects are divided into two groups. Two classrooms are arranged for this experiment. Classroom for experimental group has given various physical facilities i.e. benches, whiteboard, drinking water, projector, ventilation, lighting etc. an this classroom was spacious. Classroom for control group has not given these facilities, they had only blackboard, benches, and this classroom was very small. At first researcher has taken pre-test. Both groups are taught by two teachers. This experiment is continued for two weeks. After completion researcher administered post-test immediately. In this way data was collected.

Table I shows that there is no significant difference between the performance of control and experimental groups on pre-test calculated 't' value was found 0.83, which is less than table value of 't' at 0.05 level. So the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the performance of control and experimental groups on pre-test is accepted. These results showed that the subjects of experimental group and control group performed similar on pre-test.

Table II shows that the subjects those has given physical classroom environment (experimental group) performed better compare to the subjects those had not given physical classroom

environment (control group). In this investigation calculated 't' value was found 2.80 which is more than table value of 't' at 0.05 level. So the null hypothesis that "there is no significant difference between the performance of experimental group and control group on post-test" is rejected. Hence it was concluded that subjects of experimental group performed better as compare to the student of control group on post-test.

CONCLUSION:

1. There is no significant difference between the performance of experimental group and control group on pre-test.
2. There is significant difference between classroom physical environment and academic achievement of the subject. If students given well-furnished classroom with various facilities, there learning performance will increase.

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Psychosocial Development of Patients with Disorder of Sexual Development vis-à-vis Hypospadias

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ABSTRACT:

This article refers to the psychological consequences of hypospadias, a male congenital abnormality of the urethra. Hypospadias is defined as an abnormal opening of the urethra on the underside of the penis and is a frequently found malformation with an incidence of 1 per 300 males. The article reviews the research relating to the psychosocial aspects of Hypospadias and the outcome of surgery on psychosocial development of the affected. Due to the fact that hypospadias is a psychological condition as well as a physical one, this paper discusses the influence of the condition on the patient's psychosocial and psychosexual development. The review highlights that severity of hypospadias influences a more negative genital appraisal and increased behavioral problems. It can be suggested that early identification of Hypospadias and surgery at birth may generate a better surgical outcome and sound psychosocial and psychosexual development

Keywords: *Hypospadias, Psychological consequences, severe forms, sexuality, behavior problems*

Hypospadias is defined as an abnormal opening of the urethra on the underside of the penis and is a frequently found malformation with an incidence of 1 per 300 males. This malformation affects the genital development and it may pose certain psychological repercussions. The birth of an intersex child or a child born with any disorder of sexual development is traumatizing for the family and prompts a long term management strategy. Psychosocial aspects of the treatment of disorders of sex development (DSDs) concerns gender assignment, information management and communication, timing of medical interventions, consequences of surgery and sexuality (Kettinis et al, 2010). Disorders such as severe hypospadias presenting as ambiguous genitalia have serious and potentially life-long consequences for affected individuals. Genetic males with severe hypospadias are wrongly brought up as females. At puberty, they are reassigned as males after undergoing surgery for correction of hypospadias which can be a traumatizing experience for the patients. Surgical reconstruction of the urethra and straightening of the penis is necessary to ensure urinating in the standing position and full adult sexual functioning.

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Another important goal of hypospadias surgery is the achievement of a cosmetic appearance of the penis that is as "normal" as possible. Although more than 150 surgical techniques to correct hypospadias have been described (Levitt & Reda, 1988), studies on psychosocial functioning of hypospadias patients are scarce. Adolescents and young adults who have undergone several repair surgeries for most severe hypospadias, despite a good overall psychosocial and psychosexual adjustment, do report more dissatisfaction adjustment with their penis appearance than peers from general population (Vandendriessche et al., 2010, Mieuisset Soulié, 2005).

Studies indicate that adolescents having undergone Hypospadias repair surgery in childhood do not show any significant differences with peers as to gender behavior, age at first sexual intercourse behavior, and attitude towards sexuality (Schönbucher et al., 2008; Mureau et al., 1995; Sandberg et al., 1995)

There are very few studies dealing with the proper management of such disorders so as to prevent the agony of parents resulting from ignorance and social stigma. This article reviews the research relating to the psychosocial aspects of Hypospadias and the outcome of surgery on psychosocial development. Due to the fact that hypospadias is a psychological condition as well as a physical one (Matuszkiewicz et al, 2012), this paper discusses the influence of the condition on the patient's psychosocial and psychosexual development.

METHODS:

A literature search was conducted for papers that focused on psychosocial adjustment, and the psychosexual development of children, and adolescents with hypospadias in the last 20 years. The following electronic bibliographic databases were searched: Embase, PubMed, and Medline. The searches were carried out using the keywords hypospadias, psychosocial adjustment, social, psychological, sexual behavior, and sexual dysfunction dealing only with the psychological consequences of hypospadias. Eligible publications were limited to psychosocial/sexual adjustment of hypospadias patients in childhood, adolescence and/or adulthood. Papers were included if the study sample comprised individuals with isolated hypospadias cases only.

The papers dealing with the psychological consequences of other urological anomalies were ruled out from the study.

RESULTS:

The main characteristics of the included studies are summarized in Table I. Six studies were included that had associated comparison data with them. Main weaknesses of the studies included small sample sizes, missing information about medical characteristics and the use of no validated measures. Meta-analysis could not be carried out for the present review as most of the studies comprised of small sample size, with variable experimental designs and missing information.

TABLE 1: Summary of studies included in the Review

S. No.	Study Reference	Study Design	Age of Patients	Comparison Data	Severity	Outcomes
1	Vandendriesche et al, 2010	Cross-Sectional / 10 boys	11-18 years	10 boys	Mild to severe	Boys operated on for Hypospadias appear to experience normal social, psychosocial and sexual development
2	Mondiani et al, 2002	Cross-Sectional/42 boys	>90%, 18 years of age	500	Mild to severe	Severity of disease influences a more negative genital appraisal and the number of operations is correlated only with more difficulty in initiating contact with the opposite sex.
3	Sandberg et al, 2001	Case-Control/175 Boys	6-10 yrs	333 age matched	Glanular (mild) to perineal (severe)	More severe anomalies were associated with increased behavior problems.
4	Purschke and Standke, 1993,	Cross-sectional/47	5-13 yrs	23 boys after various operations norms	Glanular (mild) to Penoscrotal (severe)	Hypospadiac children showed strong feelings of inferiority and an increased sensibility, proved to be socially less adapted and more difficult to train. Children with mild forms of hypospadias had a less striking effect. More aggravating mental problems were noted with increasingly frequent repetition of operations.
5	Mureau et al, 1997	Case-Control 116 Hypospadiacs	9–18	88 boys after hernia repair	Distal (mild) to Proximal (medium)	No significant relationships of severity of hypospadias with psychosocial functioning could be found. Adolescent Hypospadias patients who were dissatisfied with their penile appearance are more at risk for psycho-social problems.

DISCUSSION

Publications on the psychological, social, and sexual development of patients operated on for hypospadias are still rare and deserve attention.

Studies depict contradictory outcomes with respect to social, psychological and sexual development of patients operated on for hypospadias. Boys in the age group 11-18 years after

surgery appeared to experience normal social, psychosocial and sexual development. On the other hand, children in the age group 5-13 yrs showed strong feelings of inferiority and were observed to socially less adapt.

However, in most of the studies, it was observed that severity of the disease influenced a more negative genital appraisal associated with increased behavioral problems. Sandberg et al, 2001 also suggested that more severe anomalies were associated with increased behavior problems and poorer school performance. Purschke and Standke'1993 further emphasized that milder the hypospadias, the effect is less striking as compared to severe cases. According to Mureau et al, 1997 adolescent Hypospadias patients who were dissatisfied with their penile appearance were found to be more at risk for psycho-social problems.

The present review highlights that the increased severity of the hypospadias would result in a more negative genital appraisal and increased behavioral problems. Though there are contradictions with respect to the age of operation of the patient and its psychological outcome, it can be suggested that early identification of Hypospadias and surgery at infancy may generate a better surgical outcome and sound psychosocial and psychosexual development.

Ambiguity of the genitalia in the newborns still remains a poorly understood subject. There are very few studies dealing with the proper management of such disorders so as to prevent the agony of parents resulting from ignorance and social stigma. In conservative settings, since ambiguity of the genitalia is a sensitive topic of discussion, its information is often kept a secret within families. The true paternity of a boy with hypospadias may also be surreptitious. Emphasis on the importance of counseling the families of Hypospadias patients implies discussing how to deal with the social environment. Appropriate tools must be formulated to identify at risk families and training programmes for at risk families need to be developed and made easily available especially in rural areas. For instance, in Asian Indian context where birth of an intersex child is a social stigma, clinicians should pay extra care and give attention to timely prepare the parents of the consequences of the disorders of sexual development in their child's sexual life. However, more studies are needed to investigate the effects and consequences of Hypospadias on people's life. Efforts should be made for a screening program for hypospadias among newborns, especially among rural areas to prepare families for genital surgery and psychological treatment techniques addressing the aspect of Hypospadias.

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Effect of Parenting Styles and Different Family Income on Altruism in Adolescents

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ABSTRACT:

The role of parents in socialization process has been a topic of considerable debate for decades. To elicit prosocial behavior in children is a major socialization goal for many parents. Therefore it is very necessary to study factors that bring out prosocial behaviors in adolescents. The relationship between parenting and children's prosocial behavior has been studied extensively; however, there have not been many such studies in India. This study focused on the role of parenting styles and the influence of the family income on the altruistic behavior of adolescents in India. Sixty participants both girls and boys under the age group of 13-19 years took part in the study, where they were divided into two groups based on the criteria of their family income, one group under the income bracket of 20,000-35,000 per month and the other, 1-1.5 lakhs per month. The influence of parenting styles on the altruistic level of adolescents was assessed by using two questionnaires, the Parental Authority Questionnaire 30-item version (PAQ) that has three subscales: permissive, authoritarian and authoritative and the Altruism Scale 30-item version (ALTS). Results show that participants with high authoritative parenting style had higher level of altruism when compared to permissive and authoritarian parenting style. Also the study found that there is no significant difference in the altruistic behavior of adolescents of the first income group ($M=38.43$) and the second income group ($M=36.17$). Therefore, the study suggests that while the difference in family income of the adolescents has a minimal effect on their altruistic behavior, parenting styles play a crucial role in their moral development.

Keywords: Parenting styles, family income, altruism, adolescents.

Newspapers, television or radio, are bombarded with news about human violence, cruelty, and injustice like terrorist attacks and hijackings etc. (Eisenberg, N.; Mussen, P.H., 1989). Some common anti-social behavioral problems exhibited by adolescent students include disobedience and even violence towards parents, school dropouts, smoking, alcoholism and other drug use, petty crime, and various other manifestations of juvenile delinquency (Chuddar & Chaudhari, 1993; Shukla, 1994; Simhadri 1989).

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A great sense of confusion and disorientation has shrouded the youth, since children have easy access to sex, inappropriate language and violence through the family cable TV and the internet for teenagers. In the meantime, moral standards and values have been marked as “outdated” and treated as guidelines. Clearly, violence among children and youth is an issue that needs to be examined, understood, and ameliorated through effective, concerted and sustained efforts. (Yu-Chen Peng, 2007)

In order to prevent the development of antisocial behaviors it is important to encourage prosocial behavior and altruistic behavior in children while they are still young and receptive (Yu-Chen Peng, 2007). Furthermore, in some behavior intervention programs, results reveal that an increase in prosocial behavior is positively correlated with the reduction of aggressive behavior amongst elementary school students (Grossman et al., 1997). Thus, it is necessary to study factors that promote prosocial behaviors and altruistic behaviors in adolescents. Prosocial behavior refers to actions that benefit other people or society as a whole (Twenge, Ciarocco, Baumeister, & Bartels, 2007), where as altruism is one of the component of prosocial behavior which will be the focus of the current study. Altruism is defined as “behavior carried out to benefit another without anticipation of rewards from external sources” (Macauley; Berkowitz, 1970). Since they spend the majority of their time at home, for the purpose of this research, we will be focusing on how parents and familial income act as important factors in promoting altruistic behaviors in teenagers.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this study is to determine if a functional relationship exists between the type of parental style used and the level of altruism in adolescents. Thus, the implication of this research seems to indicate that appropriate parenting play a key role in avoiding future youth problems, and children altruistic development.

Further, the role of different family incomes on the altruistic level of adolescents is also examined. Thus, this study focuses on the role of two factors; parenting styles and family income, on the altruistic behavior of adolescents in India. More specifically, the following hypotheses are proposed:

1. Parenting styles have an influence on the altruistic level of the adolescents.
2. The level of altruism varies in adolescents belonging to different income groups.

DEFINITIONS

Prosocial behavior

The term prosocial behavior arose in the 1970s, leading to psychological analysis of the giving, helping, and sharing processes. The nonresponsive bystanders in the brutal Katherine “Kitty” Genovese murder in 1964, as well as the 1960s Civil Rights Movement refuting racial discrimination, further prompted examination of human nature and the significance of helping others (Knickerbockers, 2003).

Prosocial behavior is defined as voluntary behavior that is carried out to benefit another without anticipation of external rewards and is performed under two circumstances (a) the behavior is done for its own end, and (b) the behavior is done as an act of restitution.”(Bar-Tal, 1976)

Prosocial behavior can be defined as voluntary actions intended to help or benefit another individual or group of individuals (Knickerbocker, 2003). While these actions benefit the recipient, they can also be costly to the doer (Bénabou, 2005). One is thus faced with the decision to help others at the expense of oneself (Simpson, 2008). When considering prosocial behavior, the external, explicit actions are emphasized; as opposed to the internal, implicit motivations for those prosocial actions. Prosocial behavior entails both the physical and mental amelioration of others (Knickerbocker, 2003).

According to Eisenberg and Mussen (1997, p. 3), prosocial behavior refers to "voluntary actions that are intended to help or benefit another individual or group of individuals." Thus, prosocial behaviors are defined in terms of their intended consequences for others and are performed voluntarily rather than out of demand.

Although the intention behind prosocial actions is to benefit others, prosocial actions may be performed for a variety of reasons. For example, an individual may be motivated to assist someone in order to get a reward in return, to gain the approval of others, or to express the sympathy that is truly felt for that person. (Yu-Chen Peng, 2007)

ALTRUISM

The term altruism is sometimes used interchangeably with prosocial behaviour, but true altruism is an unselfish concern for the welfare of others.

Auguste Comte, French philosopher and sociologist, first introduced the term (Encyclopedia of Britannica, 1967, Vol.8). Probably he came to adapt the term from the Italian *altruì*. For him altruism was an unselfish regard for the welfare of others.

Altruism refers to one specified type of prosocial behavior – voluntary actions intended to benefit another that are intrinsically motivated-that is acts motivated by internal motives such as concern and sympathy for others or by values and self rewards rather than personal gains. Internalized values that instigate altruism include a belief in the importance of others’ welfare or justice. individuals may reinforce or reward them selves with feelings of self esteem pride or self satisfaction when they behave in ways consistent with those internalized values and they may punish themselves (with guilt or feeling of worthlessness)when they do not (Bandura,1977,1986).

Altruism is characterized by an emphasis on the needs of the others, concern about his or her well being, and finding a solution for his or her problem. The definition of altruism in Webster’s new encyclopedic dictionary (1993) is “unselfish interest in or care for the welfare of others.”

Effect of Parenting Styles and Different Family Income on Altruism in Adolescents

Altruism is the behavior of placing others before oneself. Humans have a unique capacity for altruism that anthropological game theory experiments have found replicable across all cultures. (E Fehr, U Fischbacher - Nature, 2003)

According to Bryan and Test (1967) altruism means “those acts where in individual’s sharing or sacrifice is a positive reinforcer for no apparent social or material gain.”

Welster and Pavilian (1972) hold that “altruistic behavior is generally thought of as behavior that benefits another rather than the self, when something is done out of goodness of one’s heart.”

Leeds (1973) presents three conditions for altruistic behavior; (i) it must be treated as an end itself, (ii) it must be elicited voluntarily, and (iii) it must be judged by others as doing good.

While there are differences about the precise definition of altruism, there is a general agreement that altruistic behavior must be carried out volunteering, must aim to benefit another and must be carried out without anticipation of reward.

PARENTING

Parenting is one of the most difficult tasks that adults face. While most of them enter the world of parenting with little instructions or guidance; they mainly use trial and error in their attempts to be effective parents (Forehand, Rex; Long, Nicholas, 1996) . As a result, it is crucial to investigate the kinds of parental practices and values that truly stimulate children’s growth and their character development.

Parenting styles

Darling and Steinberg define parenting styles as “a constellation of attitude towards the child that are communicated to the child and create an emotional climate in which the parent’s behaviors are expressed.”

However, with the development of Baumrind’s classification of parenting styles, studies began to converge as this classification gained popularity.

During the early 1960s, psychologist Diana Baumrind conducted a study on more than 100 preschool-age children (Baumrind, 1967). Using naturalistic observation, parental interviews and other research methods, she identified four important dimensions of parenting:

- Disciplinary strategies
- Warmth and nurturance
- Communication styles
- Expectations of maturity and control

Based on these dimensions, Baumrind suggested that the majority of parents display one of three different parenting styles. Further research by also suggested the addition of a fourth parenting style (Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

THE FOUR PARENTING STYLES

Authoritarian Parenting

In this style of parenting, children are expected to follow the strict rules established by the parents. Failure to follow such rules usually results in punishment. Authoritarian parents fail to explain the reasoning behind these rules. If asked to explain, the parent might simply reply, "Because I said so." These parents have high demands, but are not responsive to their children. According to Baumrind, these parents "are obedience- and status-oriented, and expect their orders to be obeyed without explanation" (1991).

Authoritative Parenting

Like authoritarian parents, those with an authoritative parenting style establish rules and guidelines that their children are expected to follow. However, this parenting style is much more democratic. Authoritative parents are responsive to their children and willing to listen to questions. When children fail to meet the expectations, these parents are more nurturing and forgiving rather than punishing. Baumrind suggests that these parents "monitor and impart clear standards for their children's conduct. They are assertive, but not intrusive and restrictive. Their disciplinary methods are supportive, rather than punitive. They want their children to be assertive as well as socially responsible, and self-regulated as well as cooperative" (1991).

Permissive Parenting

Permissive parents, sometimes referred to as indulgent parents, have very few demands to make of their children. These parents rarely discipline their children because they have relatively low expectations of maturity and self-control. According to Baumrind, permissive parents "are more responsive than they are demanding. They are nontraditional and lenient, do not require mature behavior, allow considerable self-regulation, and avoid confrontation" (1991). Permissive parents are generally nurturing and communicative with their children, often taking on the status of a friend more than that of a parent.

Uninvolved Parenting

An uninvolved parenting style is characterized by few demands, low responsiveness and little communication. While these parents fulfill the child's basic needs, they are generally detached from their child's life. In extreme cases, these parents may even reject or neglect the needs of their children.

THE IMPACT OF PARENTING STYLES

In addition to Baumrind's initial study of 100 preschool children, researchers have conducted numerous other studies that have led to a number of conclusions about the impact of parenting styles on children.

Effect of Parenting Styles and Different Family Income on Altruism in Adolescents

- Authoritarian parenting styles generally lead to children who are obedient and proficient, but they rank lower in happiness, social competence and self-esteem.
- Authoritative parenting styles tend to result in children who are happy, capable and successful (Maccoby, 1992).
- Permissive parenting often results in children who rank low in happiness and self-regulation. These children are more likely to experience problems with authority and tend to perform poorly in school.
- Uninvolved parenting styles rank lowest across all life domains. These children tend to lack self-control, have low self-esteem and are less competent than their peers.

Family income

Family income counts all the income of all residents over the age of 18 in each household, including not only all wages and salaries, but such items as unemployment insurance, disability payments, child support payments, regular rental receipts, as well as any personal business, investment, or other kinds of income received routinely. (www.hud.gov)

LITERATURE REVIEW

Parenting styles

A historical review of parenting researches would reveal that for decades, researchers have been trying to find the most appropriate ways in which to classify parental behaviors into different styles. Two dimensional approaches developed into three dimensional ones and still variability existed in parental behaviors. Additionally, as Maccoby and Martin (1983) have noticed, the dimensions that emerged in the studies were often only weakly related to the theories from which they were formulated. For example, the dimension “warmth” is really only vaguely relevant to the psychoanalytic theory from which it was developed, being a factor that can be conceptualized as drawing children away from entertaining aggressive impulses toward their parents. As more studies proceeded, single dimensional theories were developed, but consensus could still not be gained from other theorists.

However, with the development of Baumrind’s (1967) classification of Parenting Styles, studies began to converge as this classification gained popularity. In this Research, Baumrind’s classification of parenting styles will be used; as a result it is crucial to understand Baumrind’s dimensions of parenting patterns. A look into the devising process of her classification reveals that Baumrind (1967) developed a parenting style typology which consists of three parenting styles: authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive/neglectful. Authoritative parenting style is associated with warm and responsive parents in addition to high control and demand. Authoritarian parenting style is associated with low measures of warmth and responsiveness and high level of control. Permissive parenting style varies in degree of warmth with some being very warm and indulgent while others are cooler and lack interest in the child. (Durkin, 1995)

Parenting style and prosocial behavior

In the past few decades, there has been an increase in studies on the relationship between parenting and children's prosocial behavior. Considering the family to be the place where socialization begins, it is no surprise that researchers would look to parenting styles in order to understand more about children's prosocial behavior. For the past decade, researchers have been questioning the influence of parenting as opposed to the influence of children's genetic makeup and peer culture. Though not the sole influence, parents exert a profound influence on their children's behaviors.

The impact of parenting on children's prosocial behavior has been studied extensively (e.g., Eisenberg & Fabes, 1998; Grusec, Davidov, & Lundell, 2002). If interaction of parent with child is active and positive, the child performs more prosocially; however, if parents ignore, reject or neglect their child, the child may easily feel inferior and retreat when he or she experiences setbacks and such a child may be emotionally less stable and less prosocial as well (Lo, 1997).

The interaction of emotional processes, regulatory mechanisms and parenting styles modulate prosocial behavior and aggressiveness (Bandura, 1999; Eisenberg, 2000; Carlo et al., 1999 y Gloria, 2001).

The family environment is significant in the development of prosocial behaviour, as the marital relationship and other significant relationships provide the models for caring relationships in the household, as well as for the values of that family (Robinson & Zahn-Waxler, 1994).

The quality of child-rearing and early companionship has been shown to have a profound impact on prosocial behaviour (Braten, 1996).

Hetherington and colleagues (Hetherington et al., 1999) discovered a moderately high correlation between authoritative parenting and adolescents' social responsibility for mothers.

In Taiwan, a number of researches are consistent with the finding that children of authoritative parents perform more prosocial behaviors than those of neglectful parents (Zao, 1987; Lo, 1997; Chen, 2006). In addition, it has been found that junior high school teenagers of authoritative parents have less deviated behaviors than those of neglectful parents (Zhou, 2001; Sun, 2002).

Parents who are demanding without warmth and sensitivity (the authoritarian style) may actually interfere with prosocial development. At least for toddlers, this parenting style has been associated with reductions in children's empathic responding (Robinson, Zahn-Waxler, & Emde, 1994).

Moral development on the whole, is most effectively launched when parents are authoritative in their style: on one hand, warm, responsive, and sensitive in their care giving and, on the other hand, demanding, requiring that children live up to standards and values appropriate to their level of maturity. (P.C. Broderick; P. Blewitt, 2006).

Effect of Parenting Styles and Different Family Income on Altruism in Adolescents

Prosocial behavior has been shown to be stimulated from parents who expect and demand social responsibility and moral behavior (Eisenberg & Fabes, 1998).

Parenting styles that include power-assertiveness and physical punishment with a deprivation of privileges, have either had no relationship or a negative relationship on the development of prosocial behavior. Physical abuse is negatively related to the development of prosocial behavior and empathy (Eisenberg & Fabes, 1998).

There are also a number of other specific characteristics of parenting that seems to foster children's altruism. First, when parents have strong prosocial values, their elementary-school-aged children are more likely to be seen by peers as prosocial (Hoffman, 1975). Similarly, adults who show unusual prosocial tendencies, such as "rescuers" of Nazi victims in Europe during World War II, frequently report having had parents who strongly valued caring and helping behaviors (Oliner & Oliner, 1988). Second, adult modeling of prosocial behavior seems to influence children's altruism. On the whole, models who are perceived by children as competent, models who have long-term, nurturant relationships with children, and models who express happiness after prosocial behavior (rather than receiving tangible rewards for their behavior) tend to foster children's prosocial behavior (Eisenberg & Fabes, 1998). Also, providing children with opportunities for prosocial action seems to help encourage a commitment to altruistic action. (Eisenberg & Fabes, 1998).

Parental responsiveness is important to foster prosocial behavior in children. Particularly, it is more likely for parents to raise prosocial children by using the authoritative parenting style (high on parental responsiveness) as compared to the authoritarian and the neglectful parenting style (both low on parental responsiveness). (Yu-Chen Peng, 2007)

Parents who have positive feelings toward their children and provide positive, noncoercive discipline have children who are relatively more prosocial. The opposite is true for parents high in negativity toward their children. (A Knafo & R Plomin, 2006)

Children's prosocial behaviors are largely learnt from observing and imitating adults who demonstrate appropriate behaviors, i.e. modeling (Bandura, 1977; Grusec, 1988).

Mills and Gresco (1989) indicate that once children acquire a moral response, such as sharing or telling the truth, reinforcement in the form of praising the act and the child's character increases its frequency. It is important to emphasize the enormous power parents and caregivers possess to influence the behaviors of a child since they are often the major "important others" of the child, being the ones most closely connected to the child socially and emotionally.

Nevertheless, other researches, such as Chen (2003) found no difference between the prosocial behaviors of children reared by different parenting styles.

Socio cultural differences and prosocial behavior

The influence of social status as a moderator of prosocial behavior is that, which the higher cost of living in a community is negatively correlated with willingness to act prosocially. As cost of living is highly correlated with the income generated, it could be justified that certain facets of social status are systematically linked with prosocial behavior. This could have important implications for the prediction of the level of prosocial behavior in societies in which income level is raising it points the possibility of the emergence of a society in which a combination of high income and low compassion will lead to wealth but cold heartedness. A more comprehensive sociological understanding of prosocial behavior is currently only beginning to emerge. Social status which is related to economic differences between social classes constitutes one of the most important systems of inequality in society. Where the independence of the higher income groups rests upon possessions and high level skills, the lower income groups are characterized by a social tradition of reciprocal support systems. So there is great need to in the contemporary society to study more about these social roots of prosocial behavior. (Hans Werner Bierhoff-prosocial behaviour, 2002)

More altruism and generosity in subjects participating from upper class was found when compared with the subjects of middle and working class that go on the same line. (Carlo et al., 1999; Samper, 1999, Mestre et al., 2001 y Gloria 2001)

Another finding reported that socio economic status is partly related to altruistic behavior. (Christiansen, John R.; Blake, Reed H. 1975)

Another research found out that lower class persons are characterized by certain modes of behavior which operate against altruism. (Hodges, 1964)

Lewis Coser has written, moreover, that the poor becomes “infantilized” through given them in efforts to assist them. In other words, programs designed to help the poor tend to make them more dependent and, it might be assumed, less likely to take independent stance required to be altruistic.(Coser, The Sociology of Poverty, Vol.13,1964)

SUMMARY:

Based on the above researches different parenting styles do seem to influence the cognition, emotions and behaviors of children. Still we need to understand more about parenting in relation with child's outcomes to raise our children in more appropriate manners and in healthier environments. In so doing, we will then be able to equip them with the ability to “make the better choice” when situations arise, knowing that parents' responsiveness and demandingness as perceived by the child can greatly affect the child's behavior outside the home. Thus, the effect of parenting on children's prosocial behavior require further investigation and this research that studies the influence of parenting styles on the altruistic level in adolescents will seek to find an answer to this problem.

Based on the above theoretical notions one can also say that possibilities exist that varied socio-cultural differences modify the extent of altruism. However, there have not been many studies regarding influence of different income groups on the level of altruism in adolescents in India and hence the need.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

In order to test the hypothesis of this study participant were selected by the means of simple random technique. The final analytic sample size of this study was 60 with 30 boys (50%) and 30 girls (50%) in total, who ranged from 13 to 19 years old in age. They were divided into two groups based their family's income. One group consisted of a familial income of Rs. 20,000-35,000 per month and the other, of Rs. 1-1.5 lakhs per month. The Parental Authority Questionnaire 30-item version (PAQ) that has three subscales: permissive, authoritarian and authoritative and the Altruism Scale 30-item version (ALTS) were then administered to the participants by the researcher. A brief introduction of the purpose and procedure of the questionnaire and an assurance of anonymity were given to the participants before they completed the questionnaires.

Instruments

Demographic backgrounds, including information such as subjects' sex, age, Parents' occupation and family income (per month), were collected from the subjects.

There were two instruments used in this study. The parental authority questionnaire was used to measure the parenting styles and the altruism scale was used to assess the level of altruism in adolescents.

Parental Authority Questionnaire

This questionnaire was developed by Dr. John R. Buri, (1991) for the purpose of measuring Baumrind's (1971) permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative parental authority prototypes. It consists of 30 items per parent and yields permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative scores for both the mother and the father; each of these scores is derived from the phenomenological appraisals of the parents' authority by their son or daughter. The PAQ has three subscales and consist of 30 items ,out of these 10 items relate to permissive parenting style (P: items 1, 6, 10, 13, 14, 17, 19, 21, 24 and 28), another 10 items relate to authoritarian parenting style (A: items 2, 3,7, 9, 12, 16, 18, 25, 26 and 29), and the remaining 10 questions related to authoritative/flexible parenting style.(F: items 4, 5, 8, 11, 15, 20, 22,23, 27, and 30).

A 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither agree nor disagree ,4 = Agree, 5 = strongly agree)was used and was scored easily by summing the individual items to comprise the subscale scores. Scores on each subscale range from 10 to 50.

Effect of Parenting Styles and Different Family Income on Altruism in Adolescents

The PAQ demonstrates highly respectable measures of reliability and validity. It is useful for assessing the parental authority exercised by both mothers and fathers and it is appropriate for both females and males who are older adolescents or young adults. Its potential as a research tool in the investigation of individual correlates of parental permissiveness, authoritarian, and authoritativeness is promising. (Buri, John R., 1989)

Altruism scale

The Altruism Scale (ALTS) was developed by S. N. Rai and S. Singh in Hindi language with 30 items that measures the altruistic tendency of adolescents. Each item has three alternative responses, say altruistic, neutral and egoistic. This group test is meant for 10 to 19 years age group adolescents.

The responses obtained in the form of tick marks on 30 items of altruistic scale are quantified. A score of two for altruistic, one for neutral and zero for egoistic is awarded to each item of the scale. The maximum score is sixty and the minimum is zero.

This scale has been found to be highly reliable and valid. Reliability of altruistic scale was determined by test-retest method. After one month's interval retest was done. The reliability coefficient was .84 with reliability index of .92 which was statistically significant. The obtained reliability coefficient indicates that the scale possesses a fair amount of stability assessing the extent of altruism. The scores of validity coefficient on altruistic scale is .63 which was significant at .01 level of confidence. The obtained validity index indicates that the scale does measure the extent of altruism. (Rai, S.N; Singh, S)

PROCEDURE

Consent forms were given to each subject in order to gain permission for participation. Two questionnaires, namely the Parental Authority Questionnaire 30-item version (PAQ) (Buri, J.R., 1991) and the Altruism Scale 30-item version (ALTS) (S. N. Rai and S. Singh) were then administered. The purpose and procedure were briefly explained by the researcher. The researcher asked the participants to evaluate the language of the questionnaires. In cases where the subjects thought the language of the questionnaire to be too difficult, the researcher read each question. The researcher collected both the questionnaire after the subjects completed them.

Data analysis

Only subjects who completed both the questionnaire in their entirety were included in the final results of the study.

RESULTS

The main goal of the present study is to analyze the impact parenting styles have on the altruistic level of adolescents. For this purpose an ANOVA was performed to explore whether or not different parenting styles had effects on subjects' altruistic levels. Results showed that parenting styles did indeed have significant effects on level of altruism in adolescents. In addition, an analysis of correlation was performed to explore the relationship between different parenting styles and altruistic levels.

Another aim of the present study was to assess the impact of the different family incomes on the teenager's altruism. As mentioned earlier the participants for this purpose were divided into two equal groups based on the criteria of their family income that was mentioned in the demographic information. Presented below is a table 1 showing the descriptive data regarding the level of altruism in different income groups.

Table 1

Mean standard deviation, t-ratio and p value for the 1st and the 2nd income group.

Income groups	Mean (M)	Standard deviation (SD)	't'	'p'
1) 1 st income group (20,000-35,000)	38.43	7.12	1.3256	0.1902
2) 2 nd income group (1-1.5 lakhs)	36.17	6.09		

Thus, the study found that there is no significant difference in the altruistic behavior of adolescents of the first income group and the second income group.

DISCUSSION

The intent of this study was to examine the impact different parenting styles have in regard to the level of altruism in adolescents. In terms of parenting styles, in the past, whenever parenting styles were compared, the results almost always revealed authoritative parenting as the more appropriate style (Zhou et al., 2008; Kochanska et al., 2003; Landry et al., 2006). Similarly, in this study authoritative parenting style was found to be more appropriate style. Moreover, from the results obtained, we see that children reared by authoritative parents were significantly more altruistic than those reared by authoritarian and permissive parents.

LIMITATIONS

There are certain limitations of the current study: the small number of participants, the time-constraints for data collection, and the Hindi language of the altruism scale.

If data had been collected on more participants it might have been possible to find the necessary variance among the participants needed to run a statistical analysis. Thus, the effect of different income groups on adolescent's altruism level is still largely unknown and unexamined.

The altruism scale used to examine the level of altruism in adolescents had a few weaknesses in its use. Since the questionnaire was in Hindi, some participants faced a little difficulty in reading and understanding the terms used. The questions were then read to them and recorded by the researcher. The subjects may not have been able to make accurate attribution inferences.

The third limitation of this study was the lengthy data collection process. As both the questionnaires used were lengthy, it took approximately 25-30 minutes per subject to collect data. If the data collection instrument was developed to collect data in less time than one used in current study, then it would be easier to gather data from large number of participants.

IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

There are several studies that address the influence parents have on their child's prosocial development but not very many that address the impact specifically on altruistic development. Since this is an issue that likely develops in the formative years it would be beneficial for researchers to examine its impact on altruism so that interventions may be developed and implemented for high altruistic development in children.

The study on altruism is particularly important for understanding socialization process (Rushton, 1976). Therefore, the study of conditions for altruism becomes important for conducting the affairs of life. Actually altruism is indispensable for the survival of society and human life. (Rai, S.N; Singh, S)

Parenting influences cannot solely account for development and maintenance of altruistic development in children. Thus, researchers should look into other casual factors such as teacher, peer and sibling influences on altruistic development. Likely, there are several factors that promote and maintain altruistic behavior. In order to develop appropriate interventions that can be implemented to encourage altruistic behavior, researchers must address a multitude of casual factors.

CONCLUSION

Despite the limitations in the current studies, this research does present significant findings, which have implications for parenting as well as future research. In the current study, the importance of parenting styles in fostering altruistic behavior in children is discovered. Particularly, it is more likely for parents to raise altruistic children by using the authoritative

parenting style as compared to the authoritarian and the permissive parenting style. The study also found that there is no significant difference in the altruistic behavior of adolescents and thus it suggests that while the difference in family income of the adolescents has a minimal effect on their altruistic behavior, parenting styles play a crucial role in the development of altruism.

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Effect of Yoga and Gender on Self-esteem and Aggression

Dr. Rajesh Baburao Shirsath¹

ABSTRACT:

The present study to investigate the status of self-esteem and aggression among yoga performer and not performing students. The sample consists of 160 students of male and female students. With age ranging from 15 years to 25 years located at Jalna city. Two-way ANOVA was used for dependent variables of the total sample under study. A 2x2 factorial design will be used to analyzing the data. The Self-esteem Inventory developed by Dr. A.K. Srivastava and Aggression Questionnaires developed and standardized by Dr. G.C. The yoga performer students was found high level of self-esteem than yoga not performing students and the level of aggression was also high found in yoga not performing students than the yoga performer students. Yoga and gender also significant effect on aggression.

Keywords: *Yoga, self-esteem and aggression.*

The Sanskrit word “yoga” comes from the root “yuj” and has been translated as “to bind, join, attach and yoke, to direct and concentrate one’s attention on, to use and apply” (Iyengar, 1966, p. 19), “joining” (Sivananda Yoga Centre, 1983 p. 15), “yoke,” “unity,” “discipline,” or “effort” (Payne & Usatine, 2002, p.5). The most common understanding of the word yoga is “union” and at its core, the purpose of yoga, is to cultivate a sense of unity – both a “union of the mind with the divine intelligence of the universe” (Raub, p.797) and a sense of union within the individual. Yoga enables a holistic healing of the individual. The philosophy perceives the mind and body as an integrated unity, for which it is considered a mind-body science. Historically, yoga teachers focused on theory rather than physical practice. Although seven of the Bhagavad-Gita’s eighteen chapters include “yoga” in the title, and the majority of the chapters discuss yoga in verse, the Bhagavad-Gita includes no mention of yoga as asana (physical postures; see the translation by Prabhavananda & Isherwood, 1944). It was in Pantanjali’s work that the first mention of asana (physical yoga) was made. As outlined by Pantanjali, yoga included eight limbs, or disciplines, including yamas (ethical disciplines), niyamas (individual observances), asana (postures), pranayama (breath control), pratyahara (withdrawal of senses), dharana (concentration) dhyana (meditation), and samadhi (selfrealization or enlightenment).

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However, while yoga begins with physical practice, it is important that the yoga practitioner not stop with physical yoga. “Asanas are not the goal. They are a vehicle to access a deeper internal awareness” (Swenson, p. 7). The ultimate purpose of the physical yoga is to take the individual into the philosophy of yoga. The essence of yoga is the development of awareness and self-control. A yoga practice ultimately teaches, through control of the body, that we have control of the mind. “As we improve our abilities of controlling the senses from wandering during practice, the subtle quality of concentration deepens. ... In time, the practice moves further internally and refinement of concentration develops as our ability to remain present is enhanced” (Swenson, 1999, p.6). This development of self-control enables the individual to be freed from the pain and suffering inherent in life. “When the senses are stilled, when the mind is at rest, when the intellect wavers not – then, say the wise, is reached the highest stage. This steady control of the sense and mind has been defined as Yoga. He who attains it is free from delusion” The individual learns to evaluate himself, rather than judge others, and to focus on self-growth, rather than attempts to change others.

While yoga has its roots in the Hindu religion, and while much of core yoga theory speaks to issues generally associated with religion (i.e., inner peace, understanding, awareness, union with self, union with a higher power), yoga is not a religion. “Nor even a philosophy – it is an extremely practical methodology for systematically expanding the conscious mind. ... Yoga is the science for overcoming the self-destructive and limiting beliefs and internal programs that keep individual life bound to the experiences of the Waking State of Consciousness” (MSI, 1995, p. 2). Payne and Usatine (2002). It is perhaps most accurate to say that yoga originated within the Hindu religion, became a philosophy and system all of its own, and now is a practice which is adaptable to the needs of the practitioner – yoga may be a religion, a philosophy, a science, a way of life, or simply a form of exercise.

AGGRESSION:

Aggression is a substitution behavioral activity that man does to inflict harm on others either by verbal mocking or by physical pain. Aggression is a behavior acquired by learning. A child learns to respond to different attitudes either by being aggressive or adaptive. Scientists believe that behavior is acquired according to the nature of the influencing factors of the environment a child lives in. If an environment is void of quarrelling, anger, hot-temper, and aggression, a child develops peaceful habits and conservative behavior. Besides, parents’ way in dealing with their children has a great impact on acquiring an aggressive behavior or avoiding it. By encouraging their children to prove themselves without hurting others, parents help their children to maintain themselves and their rights.

Psychoanalysts believe that a child’s agitation is usually accompanied by a conflict between feelings of love and hate to the other person who represents his mother. If the mother satisfies her demands, he will feel that she is a good person, but if she is late in fulfilling his need, threatens him, or shouts at him, she will become a bad figure to him. Child’s aggression is,

therefore, associated with his relationship with his mother. Frustration and troubles within this relationship arouses his anger and aggressiveness. Thus aggressive behavior is a phenomenon that appears in the child's early stages. He starts kicking and flicking objects, and sometimes he beats, curses, threatens or despises others. An aggressive child is naughty and indifferent to what will happen to him and agitated; he is uncooperative, easily affected and agitated, and noisy.

Gender: the outcome of researches, made in this respect, has proved that male aggressiveness is more direct, visible, and physical than female aggressiveness. This does not mean that males are more aggressive than females, but females show aggressiveness indirectly, invisibly, and most of the times, verbally, the different expectation of civilizations and the social practices of males and females might bring forth such differences.

Another reason for aggression is frustration. If a child's desires are not fulfilled and his needs are not satisfied, he becomes aggressive. Feeling deficient because of a physical defect, a repeated failure, or being of poor achievement in school, a child turns to be aggressive as a substitute to prove himself and thus to attain, a social rank. Jealousy is considered as one of the most important reasons, which pushes a child to take revenge of his brothers, friends or those who deprived him of his rights.

Educators affirm the necessity of differentiating between courage, and aggression, and some parents are wrong in believing that a child needs to be strong, courageous, and able to control others while proving himself no matter how he acts and what he does; such parents are to blame because they reinforce this attitude in their children. Scientists warn that parents should not be tolerant with the child's aggressiveness against others. They emphasize the importance of applying the principles of reward and punishment in order to make him feel that such a behavior is wrong, rejected, and unfavorable, and thus guiding him to behave properly and get rid of violence.

Family troubles that involve beating and quarrelling, reinforce, the child's aggressive behavior, especially if parents do not show any concern to upright their children's aggressive behavior, showing them its disadvantage.

OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

1. To investigate the effect of yoga on self-esteem among male and female students.
2. To investigate the effect of yoga on aggression among male and female students.
3. To find out the gender wise difference of self-esteem and aggression.

HYPOTHESIS

1. There will be significant difference of self-esteem between yoga performer and non performer students.

Effect of Yoga and Gender on Self-esteem and Aggression

2. There will be significant difference of aggression between yoga performer and not performer students.
3. There will be significant difference of self-esteem between male and female students.
4. There will be significant difference of self-esteem between male and female students.

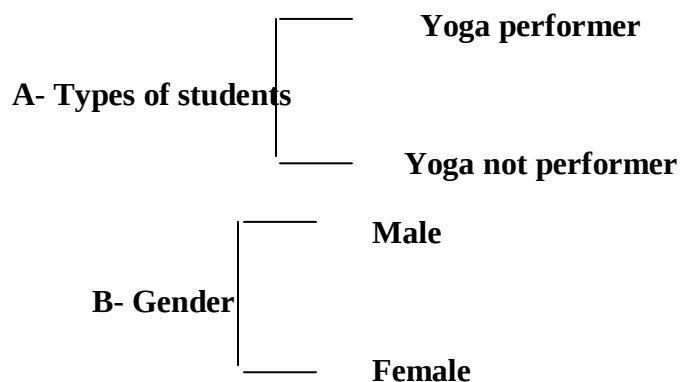
Sample:-

The sample consist of 160 subject 80 yoga performer students (50 male and 50 female), 80 not perform yoga students (50 male and 50 female). The sample of the present study is shown as below. The subject selected in the sample in the age group of 10 to 20 who are living in urban areas.

		Students	
		Yoga Performer	Yoga not performer
Gender	Male	40	40
	Female	40	40

• Design:-

2×2 factorial design will be used for research.



Effect of Yoga and Gender on Self-esteem and Aggression

Tools:

Self-esteem Inventory:

The Hindi version of the Self-esteem inventory is constructed and standardized by M. S. Prasad and G. P. Thakur by the investigator was used for the study. It consists of 30 items presented in a 7 points rating format. The reliability of the inventory was estimated through test -retest and split half reliability method. Index of reliability co-efficient consequently 0.69 and 0.82. The content validity of the mental health check list adequately assured as only those symptoms which showed 100 percent agreement amongst the judges regarding their relevance to the study of mental health were selected

Aggression Questionnaire

This questionnaire developed by Dr. G.C.Pati. In this questionnaire consist of 16 questions. Reliability coefficient of the aggression questioner was calculated by split-half method. Reliability coefficient .71 was found. The Pearson method r .82 was found. The validity coefficient is significant above one percent level.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table No. 1.1 Summary of ANOVA Dependable variable Self-esteem

Source	SS	Df	M S	F
Yoga	4928.40	1	4928.40	17.48
Gender	2175.63	1	2175.63	7.72
Students * Gender	4472.23	1	4472.23	15.86
Error	43989.85	156	281.98	
Total	510536.00	160		

Table no. 1.1 shows the result for the Self-esteem as measured by self-esteem Inventory. Type of students is represented by main effect A. summary of two way ANOVA shows that main effect 'A' is highly significant ($F = 17.48$, $df = 1$ and 156 , $P < 0.01$). The result indicates that yoga performer and yoga not performer students thus, differ from each other significantly on the Self-esteem. According to summary of ANOVA, the hypothesis no.1 "There will be significant difference of self-esteem between yoga performer and not performer students." has been accepted.

The second factor was related to the gender. It is represented by main effect 'B'. Main effect 'B' is also significant ($F = 7.72$, $df = 1$ and 156 , $P < 0.05$). These F ratios indicate that there is significant difference between male and female of both yoga performer and not performer on self-esteem.

Result of ANOVA showed that main effect 'A' and main effect 'B' function independently. Interaction $A \times B$ is not significant ($F = 15.86$, df 1 and 156 , $P > 0.05$).

Effect of Yoga and Gender on Self-esteem and Aggression

Table 1.2 Summary of ANOVA Dependable variable Aggression

Source	Ss	Df	Ms	F
Yoga (A)	189.23	1	189.23	52.57**
Gender (B)	3.03	1	3.03	.84
AXB	81.23	1	81.23	22.56
Error	561.50	156	3.60	
Total	7884	160		

*Significant 0.05 Level. ** Significant 0.01 Level.

In the above table shows that main effect of yoga F value (1,156) is 652.57 which is significant on 0.01 Level. The result indicates that yoga performer and yoga not performer students thus, differ from each other significantly on level of aggression.

Another main effect of gender F value (1,156) is 3.03 which is not significant on 0.05 and 0.01 Level. The F value denotes the Female students differs not significant than Male students about aggression. And the interaction effect between yoga and gender F value (1,156) is 22.56 which is significant both the level. These F ratios indicate that there is significant interaction effect between yoga and gender on aggression.

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